914·2
D'ha|Gre
83926
00083926

BOMBAY BRANCH

OF THE

Royal Asiatic Society.

Digitized with financial assistance from the
Government of Maharashtra
on 02 January, 2016

GREAT BRITAIN

IN 1833.

BY BARON D'HAUSSEZ,

EX-MINISTER OF MARINE UNDER KING CHARLES X.

83926

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. II.

LONDON:
RICHARD BENTLEY, NEW BURLINGTON STREET,
(SUCCESSOR TO HENRY COLBURN.)
1833.

914.2
D'Ha/Gre
83926

CONTENTS.

	Page
HOSPITALS	1
PRISONS	11
CHURCH-YARDS	18
COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY . .	21
SYSTEM OF MANUFACTURES . .	33
AGRICULTURE	44
PARKS	59
FORESTS	65
MANNER OF TRAVELLING . .	67
BREEDING, FOOD, AND EMPLOYMENT OF HORSES	79
HORSE-RACING	92

Page

STEEPLE CHASE . . . 107

FIELD SPORTS 111

ROADS, CANALS, SUSPENSION BRIDGES, RAILWAYS . . . 123

A VISIT TO ABBOTSFORD . . 153

EDINBURGH 167

HOLYROOD 177

SCOTCH SOCIETY . . . 191

NATIONAL CHARACTER . . . 194

MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS . 196

SCOTCH CONSTITUTION . . . 200

SCOTCH CLERGY . . . 201

THE HIGHLANDS . . . 202

SPORTING IN THE HIGHLANDS . 206

MELTON-MOWBRAY . . . 209

COCK-FIGHTING . . . 212

GENERAL CONDITION OF IRELAND. . 221

RELIGION 226

IRISH ESTATES 235

IRISH POOR 243

IRISH EMIGRATION . . . 248

IRISH CONSTITUTION . . . 250

Page

IRISH COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY . 252

IRISH SCIENCE AND LITERATURE . 254

MILITARY SPIRIT OF THE IRISH . . 256

IRISH CHARACTER . . . 257

CONCLUSION 260

PHILOSOPHY OF EXILE . 265

SKETCHES

OF

GREAT BRITAIN.

HOSPITALS.

THE institution, support, and management of hospitals are differently regulated in England from such establishments in other countries. Government takes no part in their administration. Hospitals in general owe their existence to the generosity of individuals, or the liberality of private associations. They have commonly a special destination, either as respects the class of poor admitted within their walls, or the class of complaints to the cure of which they are devoted. Philanthropy in England is ever on the watch that compassion be not

extended beyond proper limits. Hence each hospital has its rules and registers. It is, therefore, with extreme difficulty that an unfortunate stranger, overtaken by illness, at a distance from his native land, or the victim of a sudden accident happening to him out of his parish—it is with difficulty, I say, that such an unfortunate being finds in these asylums, reserved to the mitigation of certain specified evils, the kind of help which his peculiar case demands. Carried from hospital to hospital, the patient, if he obtain admission at any, owes his good fortune to the kind offices of some one affected by his misfortune. Protestant benevolence does not, like Catholic charity, keep an open table; she does not, like the latter, throw open the doors of her charitable establishments to all maladies alike, without inquiring what they are, or whence they originated. No—she proceeds with order, with caution, without being carried away by indiscreet pity. So much the worse for sufferers who are not ill according to these combinations; for if they present themselves at one es-

tablishment of this nature to get cured, they are told that such diseases are not treated here, and that they must go to another.

Each English hospital has its peculiar regulations, varying often according to the opinions and caprices of the founders, the varieties of which may be imagined from the fact that a right is acquired in the deliberations, by the share which has been contributed to the funds necessary for the support of the establishment. Some of them are supported by ample endowments, many others by voluntary contributions, generally abundant, but often misapplied. It would be curious to institute a comparison between the hospitals of England and France, and tosee the results obtained in both countries,—in the one by the system of philanthropy, in the other by the routine of charity.

I am far from blaming the whole system of English hospitals, or refusing praise to what I have observed deserving of it. The attentions bestowed on the sick are unremitting; there is great attention paid to cleanliness; the regimen is good; but there prevails, nevertheless,

a coldness, a methodical system, a repulsiveness, a want of consolation, which are truly afflicting to the beholder. It is easy to perceive that religion has not entered their gates.

What does the so much vaunted Bedlam present—what the greater part of the establishments for diseases of the mind? Prisons more or less spacious, in which the unfortunate inmates to whom freedom is denied, are governed with a greater or a less degree of severity. A uniform treatment is applied to all mental diseases, no matter how different in origin and progress. With few exceptions, recourse is not had to that moral treatment appropriate to the origin and various symptoms of each malady: families and society are deprived of a being who tormented them; he is transferred to a sort of provisional tomb, until the real one opens to receive him. It rarely happens that the patient escapes this anticipated death, for the treatment he undergoes is little calculated to restore his reason.

It is different in France. Mad-houses, in that country, (and these are the best kept of all our

hospitals) are confided to pious women, who consecrate all that nature has bestowed on them of strength and sensibility—all that the hope of another life suggests to them of perseverance, and all that religion has imposed on them in the name of duty, to the service of the unfortunate bereaved. Night and day they remain by the side of the patients, humouring the capricious irregularity of their tempers, studying the character of their disease, seeking to discover the point in which they are accessible to reason, meditating on the means to restore them to their senses, and keeping out of view all that can tend to the irritation of those faculties which are out of order, and the seat of their complaint. Often do these admirable women attain their object, and this is certainly the sweetest recompense which this world can afford them.

As I one day walked through one of those asylums devoted to the treatment of mental diseases, I was in the act of passing a room, when I heard proceeding from within the screams of a maniac, and presently after the

sounds of a gentle voice speaking the language of consolation. I questioned the nun who accompanied me, as to the cause of this strange contrast. You shall see, said she, and opening a wicket cut out of the door, she pointed out to me a woman in a paroxysm of fury, and close to her a young person of an angelic form. These were the only actors in this sad scene.

"That poor woman (said the Superior to me) was brought to us yesterday in the state in which you now see her. According to our custom, we have placed near her one of our community, whose business it is to catch any glimmering of that reason which has not wholly deserted the patient. An intercourse of some days will lay all open to her. Until she shall have attained this knowledge, our sister must remain shut up with the patient." "But she runs some danger," said I; "for the patient is in a paroxysm of fury." "But we are always on the spot," said my conductor; "and moreover, is no risk to be run for a suffering fellow-creature?"

Some little time afterwards I visited anew

this house of grief and of pity. On this occasion I was accompanied by the young nun, whom I had seen shut up with the poor demented creature of whom I have spoken. A woman who was walking in the garden, and who appeared to amuse herself in the cultivation of flowers, ran towards us. She was well-dressed; yet a certain disordered air was apparent in her demeanour, in her manner, and still more in her discourse. She embraced the nun, and commenced an incoherent conversation: the good sister took her hand, looked steadfastly at her, and prevailed upon her to be silent. The conversation was soon resumed, and proved to me that all hope of recovery was not lost. "You now see," said the worthy nun, dismissing the patient, "the unfortunate being with whom you saw me on the occasion of your first visit. She obeys, and understands me, because she has become attached to me. The glimmering of reason which you have remarked is only restored to her in my presence, and even now I should be careful not to fatigue her weak intellects. In a little time she will

be to the whole convent what she is to me, and I do not despair that at a later moment she may converse with everybody, and be restored to her family."

This system is pursued towards all the unhappy patients confided to the care of these pious women. All do not recover their reason, but all are brought to a state of calm which moderates their sufferings, and enables them to await their recovery with comparative relief from pain.

Vainly would such a system be sought in the English hospitals. The consolations of religion are not there held out with the same discreet zeal as in the French hospitals. In England, the ministers of religion alone distribute this comfort. With us no Sister of Charity approaches the bed of the patient without dwelling upon all that can interest him in this world and in the next. Often, I know, their compassionate kindness assumes an importunate air. They knock at the door of a resisting conscience, until it opens for the introduction of that species of consolation which has

supported them in their own labours. But for one sick person tormented by the excess of an indiscreet zeal, how many are comforted? How many find that hope which had so long forsaken them, at the very moment when, if they had delivered themselves up to their own thoughts, they would have cast off all hope and consolation, seeing that none existed for them.

The administration of English Foundling Hospitals is still more defective than that of others. Viewed under a certain aspect, it may be even pronounced immoral. Though supported by the parishes, and by voluntary subscriptions, it is impossible to obtain admission for a child until the impossibility of discovering the parents is plainly demonstrated. The mother is generally the first discovered, by means of the enquiries set on foot. She is pressed and menaced by turns, till she discloses the accomplice in her crime. She often names some rich man she has never seen. This declaration made on oath is sufficient to obtain for her an indemnity, and a sum adequate to the maintenance of her infant, unless the re-

puted father can furnish proof (always difficult to establish) of the falsity of the accusation. The English tribunals daily pronounce judgments in matters of this nature, and verily their decisions appear grounded on a strange system of jurisprudence.

Notwithstanding the great inferiority of the English hospitals to the French in point of organization, one cannot be unmindful of the immense advantages they procure for suffering humanity. But in looking to the sums devoted to the support of these institutions, as well as of the poor, one cannot but admit that much more desirable results might be obtained.

PRISONS.

THE English, who are much inclined to ostentation, above all in matters relating to humanity, have not failed to display it in the arrangement of their prisons. Here again they exhibit the systematic spirit which is peculiar to them in practising essays of benevolence at the expense of the unfortunate beings who crowd their prisons. Occupation and weariness *(ennui)* appear to be the bases of their system, the combinations of which tend to this double object. They proceed in this manner.

The new prisons are in general large and well arranged, as respects the buildings, but incommodious as respects the exercise-ground. They consist of a rotunda, round which are

ranged rooms for the habitation of the prisoners. The interval between these buildings forms triangular courts. The ground-floor of the rotunda is appropriated to the keepers of the prison. On the first floor there is a chapel, in which the corridors of each division meet. Those imprisoned in these divisions are separated by partitions. They cannot communicate with, nor even see each other.

The ground-floor forms the workshop. The other stories are distributed in rooms with several beds and cells. The openings in the walls and doors render the prisoners subject to the constant inspection of the gaolers.

The court-yards (a part of which is sheltered by roofs) are rather workshops than places of exercise. They are paved, and are watered by fountains.

The prisoners inhabit dormitories, where they sleep to the number of twelve to fifteen, or smaller chambers, furnished with three or four beds, or cells, where they are isolated. In all, they lie on camp-beds, or on small iron bedsteads, covered with paillasses in white, fre-

quently washed, and one or two blankets. During the day, the bed furniture is raised in a uniform manner. The boards and irons of the bed are kept clean by being rubbed every morning. The partitions of the walls, the slabs of the chambers and corridors, and the stair steps, are whitewashed. All is distinguished by great neatness, which is perceptible in the most minute details.

English prisons are remarkably free from the bad smells which add so much to the insalubrity of the French prisons. This is owing to the excellent supply and distribution of the water.

The inmates of prisons are subject to almost continual labour. In some cases, this labour is productive; in others, it is not. Everywhere it has a peculiar character, an overwhelming monotony well calculated to drown thought. The men are employed in putting machines in motion, which are kept out of sight. They therefore reason neither on the cause nor the effect. They work with their feet, their faces turned towards the wall.

Having laid their hands on a horizontal bar, they place their feet upon a plank which yields to their weight, and is replaced by another plank. No song relieves the monotony of this fatiguing exercise, the duration of which, determined by a certain number of revolutions of the wheel, is calculated to give a result of twelve thousand steps a day.*

Neither hilarity nor conversation are allowed. The mere act of turning round to look behind is forbidden. During the period of relaxation from labour, the prisoners are marched round the court-yard four abreast. The measured fall of their feet is the only sound which breaks the general silence.

* Each step may be estimated at one and a half foot; therefore the daily walk of each individual may be three miles and three quarters. This would only be a moderate exercise calculated to preserve health, if the mode of movement did not considerably add to the fatigue by the muscular force which the prisoner is obliged to add to his weight, and the exercise forced upon him of feigning to ascend a staircase. There results from these efforts a general lassitude, which extends from the limbs to the lungs and occasions great pain to them.

At each extremity of the court-yard is a post furnished with iron rings, through which are passed the arms of those destined to receive corporal punishment. This is inflicted by one of the keepers with a cat-o'-nine-tails, composed of nine leather thongs, upon an order from the council of the prison, in punishment of the infraction of internal discipline. Punishment of this kind is likewise inflicted, either weekly, or at their entrance or departure, on children convicted of theft.

Women are subject to the same rules and regulations, and to the same labour as men, due regard being had to the relative difference in their physical strength.

The prison diet is composed of vegetable-soup, boiled meat, cheese and bread. It is good and sufficiently abundant. Spirituous and fermented liquors are rigorously forbidden.

The prison dress for men consists of a shirt, trowsers, waistcoat, a jacket, shoes, and stockings. That of the women, composed of two petticoats, a sort of under-waistcoat or bed-

gown, and linen bonnet, is ill assorted, and far from contributing to their good appearance. These dresses are of woollen stuff in winter and linen in summer.*

The moral results anticipated by English economists, appear not to have been attained by the modifications introduced into the penitentiary system. The number of crimes and punishments, far from diminishing, appear to increase each year in a fearful progression. They are incomparably more numerous than in France. The proportion of old offenders brought up again for judgment is also much greater. The effects of instruction lavished upon prisoners are neutralized by the dogmatic form of that instruction, and by the state of mental abasement to which the gaol discipline reduces the inmates.

On comparing the situation of the convicts, with the so highly vaunted results of the dis-

* The expense of prisons is incomparably greater in England than in France. In the Penitentiary it amounts to 55*l.* or 1400 francs a-head; in the other prisons, to 38*l.* or 950 francs a-head. In France, this expense is 450 francs for Paris, and 350 francs for the departments.

cipline to which they are subjected, it may be doubted whether society, and the members whom she has cast from her bosom, have gained much by these so-called ameliorations. I should be tempted to answer in the negative, and the result of my inquiries into the English prison system, would be to confine my praise to that part of it which is productive of the order and neatness everywhere prevalent. As for the rest, they are but the expensive dreams of minds thirsting for innovations, no matter from what quarter they come, or on what subject, provided only they be novelties. I do not hesitate to declare that the administration of prisons in France, promoted as it is by the superintendence of the directing councils, the care and attention of charitable associations, and the instruction of the chaplains, is milder for the criminal, more advantageous to society, and much more economical than the system pursued in English prisons.

CHURCH-YARDS.

THE English government has certainly nothing to boast of in the system of its administrative police: placed by law under the control of local corporations, this force shares the caprices, the interests, nay, even the passions of the bodies on whom they depend. One of the most frequent complaints of foreigners is directed against the English custom of converting the small open space about the churches into cemeteries. In the London church-yards, the dead are heaped up without the least regard to the disproportion between the number of corpses and the small spot of earth reserved for them. Nor is this all: graves are opened long before the bodies

are decomposed, for the purpose of letting down fresh coffins; and an infected *miasma* escapes from them. As though this disgusting custom were not sufficiently dangerous, the English bury their dead even within the precincts of their churches, thus converting them into charnel-houses.

It does not appear that the government has given any attention to this subject; for cemeteries grow up in and around churches, which in England appear to increase in number, in a direct proportion to the religious indifference of other countries.

The custom of burying the dead in the midst of a dense population, appears to arraign the judgment rather than the sensibility of the living. No one's health suffers from it; for those epidemics which in France perpetually threaten to devour the whole population, and are only averted because an enlightened police is careful to remove the germ of contagion, have no terrors for an English population: nothing indicates a painful sensibility caused by the presence of death, on the English side

of the Straits; neither the funerals constantly passing through the streets, nor the melancholy activity of the church-yards, where the remains of the dead cannot find the rest necessary to decomposition, produce any permanent impression on the English mind.

England is, perhaps, the only civilized country in which the tomb affords no protection to the remains of the dead. Wretches, known under the name of resurrectionists, snatch from their parent earth recently buried bodies, and make them the object of a horrible traffic, by selling them for purposes of dissection to theatres of anatomy, which have no other means of providing themselves: the tears of a desolate family are therefore, owing to the practices of the resurrectionists, often shed over an empty coffin.

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY.

IMMENSITY, universality, are the only expressions which can characterise the commercial greatness of Britain. There is not a port or creek in the world into which her vessels do not penetrate. All the national and manufactured productions are, to the English, a means of barter. No amount of expense deadens the activity of the speculator, nor does any extent of danger appal the navigator. Both the one and the other are carried away by a thirst of gain, dignified by a kind of national glory which attaches to it. Patriotism insinuates itself even into the passion for acquiring riches, and throws an honourable veil over proceedings which honour would frequently disavow. An unheard-of state of prosperity is the result of the combination of these two powerful guiding

principles. To represent and add to this prosperity, a fictitious paper-money has been created, in default of an adequate monetary currency. A national bank, whose immense operations extend over England—private banks destined for the supply of local wants—a national debt offering employment to capital which might not otherwise be employed; establishments in all seas — merchants in the character of sovereigns — for colonies, dominions more populous than the parent state — for outlets to commerce, other states placed by treaty in an absolute dependance on Great Britain,—in a word, an industry which not only anticipates so many wants, but also over-supplies them—these are the general bases on which the operations of English commerce are found to repose.

Having the power to dictate the law to the rest of the commercial world, England has wantonly abused her omnipotence, and thereby stimulated the self-love as well as the interests of all other nations. Means have everywhere been sought to escape a dominion and ascendency which have become past endurance. Rivals

have started up, favoured by national jealousies and the policy of governments. The effect of this competition, imperceptible at first, was after a time most serious in its immediate results, and still more menacing in its ulterior consequences. English commerce has now ceased to be indispensable, nations having learned to do without it. Its place is already sought to be supplied by native industry and enterprise, and in a few years success will crown these efforts. The resources of countries are now becoming tributary to their wants. In many points, and for a variety of objects, this end has been already attained. It has become for foreign nations a question of self-love, and a principle of political economy as well as a necessity. Every thing tends towards a complete revolution in the commercial system of the world. Each step made in this onward career will throw England back. She already manifests many symptoms of decay. Her American colonies are forced, by the excess of their sufferings, to turn towards the United States, with which they have more affinity of interests and affections, as well as an easier and

prompter intercourse. The East Indies no longer present a field for the profitable outlay of capital. The consciousness of their own strength may one day induce these colonies to separate from a mother-country which only protects them within the limit, and according to the conformity of her own interests with their's. In the event of a war, which sooner or later must take place, this sentiment would develope itself with greater force, more particularly if Russia, whose boundaries are not far removed from the frontiers of the English dominions in Asia, should threaten to force her way, and offer her support to a neighbouring and ill-disposed people.*

* This is a common opinion entertained by foreigners, yet it is a most fallacious one. The sway of the English dominions in India is mild and gentle, and the people are contented with their governors and government. In comparing their lot with the subjects of Native Princes, they are enlightened enough to perceive that the advantage is all on their side. As to invasion of India by Russia, the idea is chimerical. It would be easier for Russia to march to London than to advance one-eighth of the way towards the nearest of our Presidencies. But should they attempt this, (which they never will in our day,) they will be met and *repulsed* by as brave and disciplined a force as any in the world — we mean the Native Anglo-Indian Army.— TRANSLATOR.

What would England then do with those commercial settlements, factories, and fortresses, which she has planted around the globe in the track of her thousand vessels? Would she then find outlets for her commerce? Outlets enough she would find for her money in the expensive keep and repair of these establishments, but not for the produce created by her industry, without any inquiry as to whether consumers could be found for it.

English commerce is, in its present state, one of the most astonishing miracles of a civilization arrived at the highest point which it can attain. Her establishments by sea and land, the importance and activity of her transactions, the number of arms she employs, the circulation she gives to capital, the discoveries she originates in every branch of human knowledge, her achievements, in fine, in every thing she has undertaken, have no parallel in past or present times. And even though she should be reduced to less gigantic proportions, the recollection of what she was will dwell in the memory of nations, and her efforts and suc-

cesses will be ranged among the most powerful levers which have ever been wielded to create a revolution in the ideas and in the actual position of society.

English industry is on a par with her commerce. In no other country has industry been so developed; in none has it attained an equal degree of prosperity. Nowhere is it more economical in the employment of its means—more adroit in its contrivances—happier in its results. There is not a want, not a caprice for which it has not ever-ready resources. It bends to every thing, and adapts itself to every thing, but has unfortunately proved too eager to substitute machinery for hand-labour. Thus while the nation is enriched, whole classes are impoverished, and individuals are deprived by thousands of the means of subsistence. In the midst of all this manufacturing pre-eminence created by machinery, whole families die of hunger, and fall to the charge, not of the manufacturer, who turns to his own profit the greater part of the sum economised by the extinction of their labour, but of the community

at large, which does not, like the manufacturer, reap any advantage from the sufferings entailed by the adoption of machinery.

English industry is proud of its success, and claims great credit to itself for the low prices at which it disposes of its produce. It must be admitted that, in appearance, prices are not so high as they formerly were, but they would cease to appear reasonable if augmented as they ought to be, by the addition of the sum which the consumer is obliged to pay for the support of those whose labour has become valueless, owing to the introduction of machinery. The reduction in the price of manufactured articles is, therefore, only felt by foreigners, who pay less, inasmuch as they are not called upon to support those living beings who have ceased to be put in motion, and have, accordingly, been thrown out of bread.

Laying this consideration aside, one cannot too much laud the prodigies of English industry. Its most extraordinary creations, admirable though these may be, are not its productions, but the means employed in bringing them forth;

the simplicity, and at the same time the power of the processes which create our wonder. When one contemplates the ingenious, one might say the intelligent mechanism of the machineries, to which is transferred all the dexterity that Providence has conferred on the fingers of man, and all the strength of his muscles, without any of that inaptitude or indisposition to labour, by which human beings are fettered, or any of that false judgment inseparable from man's imperfect faculties, one is lost in admiration at that tendency, to one and the same end, of interests apparently dissimilar, at that combination of capital and talents unknown in the ancient world, and irresistible in modern times.

The spirit of association or partnership introduces itself more in England than in any other country. It is as apparent in the domestic arrangement of families, as in the details of the public service. It governs every thing; the public interest as well as the private. It makes conquests, covers with colonies an immense extent of the Asiatic coasts.

It protects its acquired territories by large armies. It treats the native sovereigns as tributary. It has its fleets, its troops, its laws, its caprices; in a word, all the attributes of supreme power. It has its establishments, its ports, its basins, its arsenals, in Europe. It combats and overcomes the rivalry which individual interest would oppose to it. It enters into politics. It refuses or grants to the government the pecuniary means to execute its projects. It is the right arm of commerce and industry. It exercises over the one and the other, and by the means of both, an equal influence. But the good which it produces is confined to the surface of society, and enters but slowly and imperfectly into its details. Arrogant in its proud career, it is regardless of the misery which it creates, and disdainfully overlooks it where its speculations are not interested in its removal. If it prepares a splendid harvest for future kingdoms and generations, it is almost always at the expense of individuals and of the existing race.

Every thing in England, from the by-path

leading to a small village, to the docks which admit the vessels of all nations, from the lighting of the streets to the building of towns, is the result of this spirit of association.

It will readily be imagined that in the distribution of its favours, commercial industry, of whatever nature may be its pursuits, is not forgotten. All enterprises are undertaken by shares. The eagerness for profits induces people to become shareholders. The chances of loss are overlooked; the probabilities of gain dazzle and blind the public, too often leading them thus astray, but still setting the enterprise in motion. The first shareholders suffer; others follow, who, profiting by an experience which has cost them nothing, and regardless of the imprudent advances of their predecessors, produce and sell at a cheaper rate.

There is a rock which causes many commercial shipwrecks: it is the excess of production. The English cannot follow the example set by the Dutch, in regard to their spice colonies. They cannot limit the number and produce of their machinery, as the latter did those of their

spice-trees. Production increases in a greater ratio than consumption. This plethora causes frequent and terrible catastrophes. But these are useless warnings, lessons lost upon those who blindly follow the road they have chalked out.

English commerce and manufactures are, therefore, threatened, though from different causes, with important modifications. ''Both have long had the whole globe as a theatre for their united operations. The world was for them a vast colony, over which they exercised an absolute monopoly. But other people have learned to produce and to manufacture, and have insisted upon paying, not in specie, but by an interchange of commodities. At the present day, they only receive from abroad that with which their own country cannot supply them. These imports are, moreover, reduced to objects of indispensable necessity. Hence, English labour will, for the future, be forced to limit itself to the supply of the parent country and of its colonies, a consumption which, notwithstanding its extent, cannot absorb an unlimited

production. This disproportion between the present and former demands is already a source of heavy calamity for Great Britain.

English commerce and industry are admirable in their proportions and in their results; but if a stranger wishes to see them in their greatest developement, he has no time to lose in instituting his inquiries; for they may not long remain what they formerly were.

SYSTEM OF MANUFACTURES.

MUCH clamour has been raised within the last twenty years against the feudal system—a system which has been abolished for three centuries. Frightful pictures have been drawn of its power, and of the abuse of that power towards kings, people, and individuals. One would imagine that in France the *chateaus* of the middle ages had risen up again, with their towers, their ancient fortifications, their executions, and above all, their dungeons. People fancied they perceived behind their portcullises, knights barbed with iron, ready to take the field, robbing travellers, knocking down the peasantry, and carrying off their wives and daughters. Every one trembled,

every one became exasperated at the mere apprehension of such an order of things, the return of which, nevertheless, appeared to be surrounded here and there by a few obstacles sufficiently calculated to banish such idle fears.

But though the world exhibited so much disquiet at the approach of these unreal dangers, none appeared alarmed at the existence of a feudal system of a different character, which enslaves thousands of individuals, condemns them to incessant toil, lays hold of women and children, exposes them to all sorts of demoralization, requires of them services not only disproportioned to their strength, but to the wretched salary granted to them; deprives them of all education, and exercising supreme control over their lives and limbs, devotes them to endless privations, contrary to all laws, to all government, and to all well-defined rights of property.

'This feudality is the manufacturing power. Its dungeons are the workshops, where thousands of unfortunate beings find a precocious death, long preceded by diseases and infirmi-

ties, which are owing to the unwholesome air they breathe, and to the excessive labour and ill-treatment they undergo. The barons are the manufacturers, who, to gratify their cupidity, condemn those dependent upon them to the most oppressive and most deplorable slavery.

What was the *corvée* to the peasantry of the middle ages, compared with the toil exacted from the labourers of the present day? This labour, it is said, enables the people to live. No doubt it does; but in like manner, the corvée of our old barons enabled their vassals to live also. The latter too, avowing their tyranny, did not affect to feel, for the victims of their despotism, that boastful humanity which falsely pretends to sacrifice itself for the happiness of the oppressed.

These reflections have been suggested to me by an authentic inquiry into the internal arrangements of the English factories, in regard to those children whose poverty obliges them to seek therein a precarious mode of existence.

Their hard lot has awakened the sensibility

of some philanthropists, who, after having addressed their complaints, in vain, to the heads of these establishments, have at length laid them before the House of Commons. An inquiry was ordered, and the following is the result of it.

From the age of eight years, children are capable of certain labour in factories, more especially in those establishments where cotton-spinning is carried on. They are subjected to a constant labour of from eight to ten hours, which is resumed after an interruption of two or three, and so continued daily during the week.

In consequence of insufficient rest, sleep becomes so imperious a want, that it overtakes the poor children in the midst of their labour. In order to keep them awake, they are beaten with cords, with whips, often with sticks, upon the back, and even the head. Many of them were brought before the commissioners charged with the inquiry, with eyes bursting from their sockets, and broken limbs, the effects of the horrible treatment which had been in-

flicted on them. Others were found mutilated by the play of the machines near which they were employed. It was uniformly deposed that the necessity of remaining in one habitual position (occasioned by an unvarying labour) led to accidents which had been followed by physical deformities as their natural consequence. It was also uniformly in evidence, that the fatal consequences entailed upon children from such accidents produced no pecuniary indemnity on the part of the masters, who refused to the parents the momentary relief necessary to obtain a cure. The greater part were maimed in consequence of not having the means to procure medical assistance.

The commissioners further stated, that the system of manufactures had the most pernicious influence on those engaged in such occupations; that death puts an end to the sufferings of a great number of the children before they attain a riper age; that such as are spared in this first stage of existence, bear in their livid and emaciated features the symptoms of premature decay; that their lank forms

and sickly constitution alike attest the unhealthful labour imposed upon them.

Should the excess of fatigue render a suspension of labour necessary, the parish refuses to the parents the small relief requisite for the subsistence of the children, and it is only by retrenching from each member of the family some portion of their already insufficient nourishment that the father can procure for the sick child the means of recovering a portion of his strength.

The two sexes, which are not kept separated in these factories, are led astray by a corruption of morals which is much more precocious than is manifested in other walks of life, and no means are adopted to obviate or retard these effects. It does not appear that any regulations have been instituted to stop the progress of this immorality, or that the thought of applying a remedy has found a place in heads in which none but considerations of sordid interest can find admittance.

The moral and religious education of the factory children is confined to a slight instruc-

tion given on the Sundays, during the hours stolen from that recreation and repose necessary to miserable creatures grown stupid through excess of labour, and reduced almost to the mournful feeling that they have no better existence than the machines of which they are the forced propellers.

These, however, are not the only oppressions exercised thus shamelessly, and without pity, towards this famished multitude. Political passions intervene. They whisper to those who have money, that they ought to have power also. In order to obtain it, the master manufacturers arm the unfortunate beings whose lot is in their hands. Under the threat of letting them die of hunger, they embody them into regiments, marshal them against the Government, and turn them into engines of disorder and subversion. They are made to march in the name of Liberty, as if political liberty could be important to him who is deprived of his personal freedom. But this is a matter of little consequence. The orders of superiors are executed by men who

have as little means of understanding their spirit as they have of opposing resistance. And when they imagine they have obtained this fancied liberty, they resume those habits of wretchedness and slavery in which they vegetate; provided always that the blows received in the struggle do not incapacitate them to continue those painful toils which a barbarous avarice (in order to square the wants with the wages of the labourer) renders still more overwhelming and insupportable.

These very task-masters, so hard, so pitiless towards their own species, towards men born in the same land, of the same race, united by the same language, and by a common religion, these very men find tears and eloquent phrases for the West India negroes! The money they refuse to a misery on the excess of which they speculate, they lavish on a cause which affords them an opportunity of making a parade of their philanthropic sentiments, without damaging their personal interests. Their ears, deaf to the cries of the unfortunate beings kept awake by the stick of the overseer, are open to the

sound produced on their imagination by the fancied cracking of the Jamaica whip.

Let us inquire whether these negroes, whose condition inspires such pity, are as wretchedly off on the colonial plantations, as the whites shut up in the filthy workshops of Manchester and Birmingham? Are the blacks made to labour twenty-eight hours out of thirty-six? Are their children snatched from them to be subjected to fatigue beyond their strength? Have they not some hours each day, and two days in the week, to give to a species of labour which is profitable to them, to a repose which refreshes them, to an idleness which indemnifies them for their excessive toil? Let the proprietors of English factories procure similar advantages for their workmen, and people may then be inclined to believe in the sincerity of their hypocritical pity for the condition of beings, whose lot is without doubt not to be envied, but whose position is not so wretched as that of the classes they oppress.

Those classes are free, it will be said. By

no means; their lot differs from that of the negroes in this only, that they are not sold. The negroes are purchased outright; the whites receive a small fractional share of the capital which they create. The one are dependant on masters interested in their life and health; the others might die, unless humanity stepped in to their relief; for self-interest stifles all appeal in their favour. All are equally slaves, equally riveted to the soil which bears them. The blacks work in the open air; the whites in a corrupted atmosphere. The one are bought in villanage, the others are let out to hire. This is the only difference which can be found between them.

The voluminous evidence of the inquiry, the facts produced, by thousands, in proof of the tyranny and oppression complained of, could not induce the reformed parliament of England to adopt those wise measures which an enlightened humanity had proposed for putting an end to so desolating a condition, without sacrificing the interests of the manufacturers. The latter carried the day; and it was decided

by a majority of eleven voices, that they might still continue to crush, with toil and punishment, human beings whose very weakness should form their protection. Behold humanity such as radicalism has made her.

AGRICULTURE.

One general idea predominates in the English agricultural system. It is the suppression of small farms. This idea has its origin no less in the spirit of aristocracy with which all classes are imbued, than in considerations of economy. Large husbandry, such as it is understood and practised in England, employs almost as many hands as the smaller husbandry, but these hands are at the command of the farmers, who exercise over the individuals whom they employ, an authority which extends itself much beyond the limits which the nature of the relation between labourer and master would appear to trace out. The latter seem to assemble as many labourers as

possible at a given point. Hence that perfect cultivation which might be thought incompatible with very large farming operations, but hence also the extreme misery and inconceivable servitude of the peasantry.

Man is said to be free in England! Without doubt he is so in the eye of the law, but there are circumstances and occasions, above all in the remote parts of the country, in which he is any thing but free. The poor man lives, literally speaking, attached to the glebe. The farmers combine, not to raise the rate of labour, and if the labourer wishes to escape a league so adverse to his interests, he is repulsed by all the parishes, where he attempts to seek for an asylum and labour, under the pretext that, not being able to give security that he shall not be obliged to have recourse to public charity, he cannot therefore be allowed to increase the charges which weigh upon the community. Poverty thus fixes to the soil which produces it her unfortunate victim, and he and the generations condemned to come after him, have, and shall have for the future, nothing better than

an indefinite prospect of slavery and privations.

The small class of farmers has disappeared in consequence of a system to which the great proprietors have lent themselves, because it flattered their indolence. It would now be difficult to find any trace of this class in the midst of the general suffering, and in the broken remnants and wreck of its former fortunes. To recur to the system of small farms, must be a work of care, of time, and of a conviction of its utility. Meanwhile there exists the indispensable necessity to follow the system of large farms, and to submit to all its consequences.

The division of fields is a part of this system. The estate is cut up into large masses, the centre is devoted to pasturage, to which are generally applied the grounds surrounding the mansion, or residence of the squire. In other words, the grazing-ground forms the park. The limits and bounds, as well as the principal divisions of the property, are marked by belts of trees, of about one hundred feet in breadth, divided length-ways by a path,

which serves for the common purposes of felling and removing the timber, for exercise, and for sporting. The trees are generally of the fir and alpine species, and are planted young, and very near each other. They are guarded from the cattle by shallow ditches, on the opposite side of which are hawthorn hedges, protected by light paling. This mode of plantation, adopted, moreover, in spots not devoted to a more profitable husbandry, especially in the small ends and angles where the plough cannot penetrate, presents numerous advantages. It is economical, offers vast reserves at a small expense, affords shelter to corn and cattle against the inclemency of the seasons; serves as an asylum to game, favours the breed, and renders shooting less toilsome. It cannot be sufficiently recommended, and might be very profitably introduced into France. Perhaps the substitution of seed plots would answer just as well for plantation, as the always more expensive process of obtaining young trees from nurseries.

Generally, in England (but there are never-

theless numerous exceptions,) the farms are well cultivated. It is usual to make a division of the fields every four years.

The English system does not readily lend itself to the system of permanent artificial meadows. You only see trefoil and sainfoin on lands which would bear nothing else.

Farming systems infinitely vary; in truth, cultivation is carried on more by local custom than by systems; and one may say that English agriculture is the result of a reasoned and perfected routine. In employing this expression, I wish to be complimentary, persuaded as I am that the English farming is a compilation of observations not digested in the mind of any one, a code resulting from an order of things existing no longer, or which has only become vicious, because the required modifications had worked too slowly. I therefore think that custom should serve as the starting-point, and that by consulting her with wisdom and discernment, she will be found to offer useful rules of conduct, far preferable to those ambitious theories which in agriculture

especially, eventuate in the ruin of those who insanely allow themselves to be carried into the adoption of them.

A settled routine is then, in England, the basis of the greater part of agricultural operations. People are the less disposed to abandon the ancient practice, knowing the extensive empire which it exercises over the working classes, and the inconvenience of resorting to coercion in procuring a departure from it. But in England, I repeat it, an enlightened experience is the handmaid of that routine; for the latter lends herself to ameliorations, and impresses them with the seal of her approbation. Thus the plough, in partaking of the improvements which it receives in different countries, preserves, nevertheless, its primitive form, and the adjuncts required either by the nature of the soil, or the habits of the labourer. The same observation applies to all agricultural implements.

In many provinces, and more particularly in lands adjacent to an abundant supply of game, corn is sown in trenches made with the hand,

and covered over with the rake. It is insisted that the economy of the seed obtained by this process, joined to the augmented produce, compensates for the increased expense of a system which is undoubtedly advantageous in proportion to the amount of labour it procures for hands which would otherwise remain unemployed.

English agriculture is very worthy of notice in its endeavours to improve the breed of cattle. Horses, cows, and sheep, are the special objects of the farmer's attention, and the basis of his speculations and profits. Each county has its peculiar breed, which is never crossed with others.

Horses are bred in meadows, in the middle of which they find shelter in open stables.

Cows and oxen pass the summer in the fields, and the winter in inclosed court-yards, in which they are fed with hay and turnips.

Sheep are turned, the whole year round, into fields sown with turnips and trefoil. They are prevented from straying away, by wickets and moveable paling or hurdles.

The custom of irrigation does not prevail, indeed it is not properly understood in English agriculture. There are few countries in which this useful practice is followed, though the abundance of water should make it obtain everywhere. In general, the English are either indifferent to, or they misdirect the labour that should be bestowed on natural meadows. In this branch of agriculture, one sees nothing, in England, which can bear a comparison with the practice that obtains in France.

Oxen are rarely used, and always ill-employed in agricultural labour. Six are yoked to a plough, which could be easily drawn by two. These animals are almost bred to do no service. At four years old, they are fattened, and delivered over to the knife of the butcher.

The rarity of land-carriage may be ranged among the number, and indeed as one of the main causes, of English agricultural prosperity. Neither the men, nor the animals employed in cultivating the earth, participate in this branch of industry. It is not so in France. What-

ever prejudice may be the result to husbandry, the hope of a profit suffices to induce the farmer to postpone the cultivation which the land requires. Hence arise delays, inconveniences, and what is worse, the loss of agricultural habits. In England, on the contrary, the husbandman is never turned from the business in hand, and the sedentary life which he leads, fosters the taste for the species of labour which agriculture requires.

The appearance of the rural habitations is the same as in France; but though the number and extent of the dependent buildings be much less in England, when compared with those of the former country, still there is a greater intelligence displayed in the orderly disposal and arrangement of each object, and a more obvious cleanliness than on the other side of the Straits. Farm-houses are often built of planks, painted white, or pitched and tarred over; sometimes in brick or stone, with roofs thatched, tiled, or slated. Compact earth, prepared as it is in France, is little used in England.

Owing to the agricultural habits of England,

many buildings are not required. With the exception of horses, all animals are kept in the open air, in summer as well as in winter. The harvests, of whatever nature, are stacked. The corn is not carried into the barn till the operation of threshing is to be commenced. If this mode of preserving it saves the expense of the necessary outlay for the building and repair of barns, it nevertheless superinduces a much greater annual expense than the interest of the monies required for such a building fund, when the cost of hand labour, which the stacking and unstacking of the corn, the loss and deterioration of the grain, and the facility afforded to incendiaries, are taken into account.

Farming-offices are generally built round a square court, in which the cattle are inclosed for the very short time during which they are prevented from grazing.

No fixed system, dependent on the locality of particular parts of a farm, and influencing the mode of agricultural operation, prevails in England. In many counties, the house is in the centre of the farm; in others, and the

greater number, it forms part of a village, and thus not only renders slow and expensive the transport of the manure and the crop, but has the additional disadvantage of clogging the speculation of the cultivators.

Foreigners, who only speak of English agriculture on the faith of others, or of what they have read or might have seen on the great London roads, are in ecstasy in relating its wonders. They are deceived and deceive in turn. Without doubt, agriculture, in some respects, is in a very perfect state; but there is still much left undone. I do not hesitate to say, that, as a whole, English agriculture is inferior to that of Brabant, of Flanders, of the provinces of Artois and Normandy; and, in particular instances, it does not bear away the palm from the relative specialities of France and Belgium. It presents, here and there, beautiful masses of cultivation, owing to the consolidation of fortunes, the peculiar taste of certain proprietors, and the union of large capitals, all which advantages are incidental to England in a greater degree than to France;

but a well cultivated field is, after all, pretty much the same in both countries. Nor does the produce of a given piece of agricultural land, all conditions of value being similar, differ very much in either country. Certain systems of husbandry, in the one country, balance the advantages or the disadvantages of an analogous system adopted in the other.

I shall cite, in support of this assertion, the custom of dividing the fields, as pastures and paddocks, by double ditches, the tops of which are surmounted by a hedge. The English pretend to find a notable economy in this custom. It saves the expense of shepherds. I have examined this point with intelligent farmers; and the extent and value of the ground devoted to these inclosures, and the cost of erecting them being taken into account, I have arrived at the conviction myself, and have also convinced others, that these protections of hedges and ditches cost three or four times more than the employment of shepherds. Hence results not only a diminution of produce, but an absence

of labour no less prejudicial to society than to individuals.

The agricultural population has degenerated, from an easy condition, to a state of suffering, contemporaneously with the abolition of small farms, and their union with large ones. The first step to make towards a more rational order of things, is the gradual, well-considered return towards the system best adapted to the genius of the people — I mean the system of small farms. The landed proprietor will be a gainer by it, for there will be a greater competition for the letting of small farms than for that of large ones, and his income will be augmented in the ratio of the little value which the farmer generally attaches to the labour of the members of his family. The small tenant will herein also find his account; for, in giving a higher rate of rent for a certain extent of land than the larger farmer, (who would join that portion to ten others of the same value,) he would obtain by his own and his children's labour, and by the effects of a minute and careful cultivation, an abundant equivalent for

the increase of his rent. Social order is no less interested in this question; for, if once solved, there would be an end of that subaltern aristocracy — always dangerous, always disposed to be jealous of those above it, and to turn its irreflective masses against power, in no matter what hands authority is placed.

Another resource presents itself; but how many prejudices, how many ill-understood and obstinate interests raise themselves up against its adoption! Who in England would venture to call for the inclosure of waste commons? Who would have the courage to assume such a responsibility? And, yet what advantages would follow in its train! What an increase of labour and of produce! What a means to fix upon the soil, to reconcile with society, a population uncertain of its future condition, unquiet, and always ready to place itself in hostility against the property of the country.

This course would afford a remedy to the progressive misery of the agricultural labourers, and to the evils which menace society; a re-

medy which is in the hands of the great proprietors. Its adoption would neither require expensive sacrifices nor difficult combinations, directed as it would be by personal interest, the best guide to consult in such an emergency.

PARKS.

AN immense space, surrounded by walls or a wooden paling, in the centre of which stands a house placed in the lowest part of the grounds, so as not to be seen from without, is, in England, denominated a park. The inclosure is disguised by a zone of larch, of pine, and other resinous trees. Within it is a pathway. The arrangement of these plantations is such, that the view, whether from within or from without, is interrupted by them, and an uniform, sad, and monotonous aspect is thus given to all parks.

The most is made of inequalities of ground, as well as of the existence of springs, to create sheets of water, not by digging out the bed

they should occupy, but by raising a dike at the interior extremity of the valley: an excellent means, which diminishes the expense, and gives a natural and graceful form to those vast reservoirs the sides of which are adorned with fine trees. Out-offices, which are too profuse in French gardens, are rarely seen in English parks; still more rarely is one invited to take exercise in them, for in general there are no walks. Extent of ground, trees, and water, alone meet the eye. But to what purposes is this extent of ground turned? It is a vast pasturage, interrupted by masses of underwood, where horses, cows, sheep, and deer peacefully graze without restraint. Groups of ten, twenty, a hundred trees, adorned with all the luxury of vegetation, and the growth of which has never been checked by the edge of the hatchet, are thrown here and there, according to the caprice which presided, a century ago, at their distribution. For combination in the effect, seek no more than what I have stated. A gravelled walk conducts you from the gate to the house. This is nearly the only one

in the grounds. If you wish to walk, you tread on the green turf, upon which, in the best-kept parks, walks are traced out by the scythe.

It should nevertheless be acknowledged, that from this want of order, from this *laissez faire*, there results something grand and imposing, but also little that is graceful, and something that is supremely inconvenient. The designers of gardens might find useful subjects to study in the system of English parks. Between the laboured pretensions of a French landscape-painter, and the complete absence of plan on the part of the English gardener; between that multiplicity of roads, buildings, and scenes, which the first abuses, and the affectation, on the part of the second, of making no use of these means, there is a middle course to steer. I should therefore borrow from the one the combination of effect produced by trees relatively to their form, the shading of their foliage, their arrangement; I should not, like the French, cut up into so many walks those immense spaces with which the English system

of landscape gardening does not meddle; I would profit by the aspects presented to me by interior and exterior objects; would borrow from the English system that extent wherein consists its principal beauty, the distribution of the waters, the clumps of trees and evergreen shrubs grouped around buildings, and which so well serve to conceal from view all that it is wished should be concealed. I would have those belts of trees which mark the limits of the park; the out-offices full of taste and originality, which form the dwellings of porters and keepers; the copse and underwood, fruitful resources for the sportsman; and those alternations of light and shade, of open perspective and limited view, which give variety to the walks, and excitement to the imagination. I would adopt from the English system the means it employs to keep the lawns in order, and those moveable iron gates, which have the double advantage of preventing the cattle from straying, and of not interrupting the view.

I should not also fail to borrow from the

English taste those small plats of ground wherein flowers are cultivated, and kept separate from the rest of the park by a line of majestic trees, or a current of limpid water. On a well-shorn lawn, strewn over with handsome evergreens, patches are cut out in the shape of baskets of flowers, varying in form and arrangement.

Architectural views, the trunk of an old tree, detached fragments of rocks, vases held suspended by double chains from two elm trees, all these are put under contribution to receive flowers, and diversify the effect which they produce. Sometimes, at the whistle of a keeper, hundreds of guinea-hens, of gold or silver pheasants, of peacocks, of pigeons of the rarest species, come to mingle the brilliant tints of their colours with those of the flowers which embellish these favourite retreats, and impart to them a life and motion, the charms of which it would be difficult to define.

From the combination of these different processes, there should result something more national than we see in our French gardens,

something more cheerful than the parks of England present, and a more rational whole than one could obtain from the exclusive use of either system.

FORESTS.

THAT which is now called a forest, in England, is but an extensive tract of land formerly covered with trees, but at present filled with thickets very distant from each other, and old trunks of oaks, whose robust natures resist a treatment calculated to destroy them.

Men and animals appear to combine for the purpose of accelerating the destruction of woods, and they have almost everywhere attained this object. The numerous flocks of cows and sheep, spread over the forests, attack the young shrubs, and the hatchet of the woodman pays no greater respect to the few trees which chance has kept from the teeth of the cattle.

The system of property in waste commons, and, with its modifications, the ill-regulated exercise of the communal and private rights and usages, are the causes of this disorder. In the state of waste in which the forests are at present, it would be better utterly to destroy them; agriculture would, by this means, recover lands actually destitute of value, without inflicting any loss on the public interest; for wood, in England, is not used for fire; and in the state in which the forests now are, it would be difficult to find a tree fit for the purposes of building. The population, whose greatest misery is a want of labour, would thus obtain the means of existence, and these advantages would be counterbalanced by none of those inconveniences which are almost always mixed up with improvements.

MANNER OF TRAVELLING.

ENGLAND recommends herself more to the investigations of the economist than to the pencil of the artist. Rich in the fertility of her soil, and in all that can be procured by an enlightened system of husbandry, by extensive property, immense commerce, and manufactures without limit, she everywhere appears clad with an exuberance of wealth, manifested in the multiplicity and sumptuousness of her mansions, in the richness and variety of her harvests, and in the active circulation of the excellent means which she employs to attain these objects; but all this does not constitute a picturesque country. There are few great rivers: beautiful spots

of country are still rarer, except in Wales, Scotland, and some northern counties. Unless one is placed on an elevation, whence one can look down on the whole country, and flit, as it were, above the hedges which cut it up into small parts, the view is arrested at no great distance by trees, thickets, and inclosures of all sorts. The traveller should not expect to meet those vast vistas—those smiling landscapes — that romantic scenery which so often afford the advantage of variety to his journey through certain parts of France.*

Vainly will he seek for peasants, in his journey through England. The English peasants do not present themselves to his notice. The reaper, the gleaner, the ploughman afford the striking incongruity of a town dress and a rural occupation. With the exception of

* The readers of all nations, excepting the French, will not agree in this opinion. With two or three insignificant exceptions within her own soil, "la belle France" may be pronounced the ugliest country in Europe, always excepting Holland. It is not for us to enumerate the beauties of England; but the author seems not to have visited Derbyshire, Herefordshire, the Wye, the Isle of Wight, nor the Lakes of Cumberland.—TRANSLATOR.

Wales and Scotland, the dress in the villages and the large towns is exactly the same. You proceed from province to province, without being reminded, as in France, Spain, and Switzerland, by the varied forms of costume, that you are passing from one country into another, and have to expect other manners, and another language, or at least a change of customs.

The taste for travelling, an expensive taste in any country, is truly a ruinous one in England. If the means of satisfying it are numerous, and accompanied with all that can promote pleasure, one is steeled against this seductive consolation by the perpetual warning of a speedily drained purse.

Posting, placed on a totally different footing from that service in the rest of Europe, is not the object of an exclusive privilege. By means of a licence which cannot be refused, relays of post-horses are established according to the caprice or the will of those who possess them. The rivalry arising from this practice does not lower the price of posting, which, London excepted, is nearly the same on all

roads, and differs but little from the price of relays in France. The number of horses is always fixed at two or four, without regard to the number of travellers, or to the form or weight of the carriages. When you desire a post chaise, the innkeeper is obliged to furnish it, without your paying an additional price. These chaises, in the shape of our *coupés*, are well hung, and very clean and commodious.

England has not, as we find in France, a breed of horses specially appropriated to posting. The greater part of the post-horses in England are hunters, or carriage-horses, which having become unfit for either of these purposes, wear out the remnant of their strength in post-chaises, before they are transferred to hackney-coaches or waggons. Their speed answers, in a great degree, to what one would expect from their breed. You travel at the rate of eight or nine miles an hour (about three and a half leagues), which includes the time of changing horses.

The height of the postilions (always chosen among the smallest men), and their dress, con-

sisting of a jacket, short breeches, and half boots, are calculated with a view to reduce to the smallest possible compass the burden of the horses. There is no difference between the town harness and that which is kept for posting. They are both in excellent condition.

The mail coaches destined for the transport of letters, are carriages with four inside and six outside places. Behind the coach the guard is seated, with a blunderbuss and a pair of pistols before him. These coaches travel at the rate of ten miles or four leagues an hour; but their small size (for the English, in general tall and thick, appear to have little regard to their personal proportions in the size of their carriages)—and the short time they stop to refresh, render them very unpleasant modes of conveyance.

Stage coaches are very elegant carriages, built to carry fifteen or eighteen travellers, and a considerable weight in packets, but on admirable roads. This is an indispensable condition. Without it, the height of the carriages, the arrangement of the whole of the luggage on the

imperial, and the lightness of the body and the axletree, would give rise to frequent accidents.

The inside of the coach contains only four places. The seat of the coachman, and another seat placed immediately behind it, admit of six persons, and two seats facing each other at the hind wheels, afford places for six or eight more. These seats are fixed over boots or boxes for stowing away the luggage. Such parcels as these cannot contain are placed on the imperial.

The desire to breathe the fresh air, rather than economical considerations, induce even the richest English to give a preference to outside places. They only go inside when compelled by bad weather. The place most in request—one knows not wherefore—is to the left of the coachman; it is considered as the place of honour, and is reserved for fashionables, and even for Lords, who do not disdain to travel thus. The sole advantages which such a station appeared to me to present, were the being placed near a well-dressed coachman, and the escaping

the chance of travelling by the side of a butcher, a shoemaker, or some other individual of that class. Each time the coachman descends from his box, his neighbour has the advantage of being made the forced depositary of his reins and whip. These are placed in your hands, as they are taken out of them again, without the least ceremony.

It has been remarked that the horses used for the stage coaches in England go more quickly than those devoted to the same service in France, and that, nevertheless, our carriages take no more time in performing a given distance. This anomaly is explained by the difference in the respective arrangements. In England, whether it be to satisfy the taste for frequent meals, or to favour the longing of coachmen and guards for beer and strong liquors, the relays are more frequent.

The appointments of an English coach are no less elegant than its form. A portly good-looking coachman seated on a very high coach-box, well dressed, wearing white gloves, a nosegay in his button-hole, and his chin en-

veloped in an enormous cravat, drives four horses perfectly matched and harnessed, and as carefully groomed, as when they excited admiration in the carriages of Grosvenor and Berkeley Squares. Such is the manner in which English horses are managed, such also is their docility, the effect either of temperament or training, that you do not remark the least restiveness in them. Four-horse coaches are to be seen rapidly traversing the most populous streets of London, without occasioning the least accident, without being at all inconvenienced in the midst of the numerous carriages, which hardly leave the necessary space to pass. The swearing of ostlers is never heard at the relays, any more than the neighing of horses; nor are you interrupted on the road by the voice of the coachman, or the sound of his whip, which differs only from a cabriolet whip in the length of the thong, and serves more as a sort of appendage, than a means of correction in the hand which carries it. In England, where every thing is so well arranged, where each person knows so well how to confine himself to the

exigencies of his proper position, the horses do better what they have to do, than the horses of other countries, and that too without the need of a brutal correction. One may travel from one end of England to the other without hearing the sound of a whip, or the hallooing of conductors, which in France fall so disagreeably on the ears of travellers.

Among the wonders of English civilization, the inns should be mentioned. In many of the larger towns they are magnificent, and they are good and well supplied in the smallest. In the greater part of them the servants are in livery, and in all, their attendance is prompt and respectful. On their arrival, travellers are received by the master of the house, whose decent dress indicates a respectful feeling towards strangers. Introduced into a well-heated, well-furnished room, they have never to wait for a meal, the simplicity of which, in the way of cookery, is atoned for by the elegance, often the richness of the plate and ware, and the superior quality of the meat. A sleeping-room, as comfortable as this kind of apart-

ment (so neglected in England) can be, completes the *agrément* of your sojourn. Your discontent does not commence till the exorbitant bill proves that such attentions, far from being disinterested, are, on the contrary, dearly charged for. Seldom do you separate from your host with a reciprocation of politeness. Yet, notwithstanding the coldness with which his attentions are received, the landlord does not cease to remain by the side of the traveller till his carriage is in motion.

That which a foreigner appreciates most in England is the facility of seeing everything. Thanks to the admirable internal communication, he can strike off from the great roads, without the fear of being stopped by the impassable state of the by-ones. Does he wish to see a castle or country mansion? He indicates his wish, and the postilions, who are adepts at this kind of *lionizing*, conduct him thither, and suffer nothing which could gratify, to escape his curiosity. Shillings and half-crowns, with which it is always necessary to be abundantly provided, cause

all gates to open, and facilitate even the most inconsiderate investigations. Under this head, France offers no subject of comparison.

To the advantages which I have been enumerating, I should add another, which never fails to strike the foreigner, and induces him to establish a comparison between the official customs of the continental governments and those of England; a comparison which is not favourable to the first. The indispensable examination which his baggage undergoes on his landing, alone wearies his patience: he may travel over the three kingdoms without meeting a government functionary, who, under pretext of the safety of the state or the interest of a city, requires the exhibition of a passport or the opening of his trunks. The police and the revenue appear to vie with each other in carelessness; yet, though a *surveillance* in these matters is not neglected, one should be grateful at escaping forms which everywhere else are repugnant, if not vexatious.

Vanity, a species of universal coin, is current as much and more in England than in any other part of the world. The traveller must take care to put his titles on his passport, and his arms on his carriage. People who have neither titles nor armorial bearings, furnish themselves with both, and find their account in so *doing*: they pay no dearer at the inns, and are much better treated in drawing-rooms.

BREEDING, FOOD, AND EMPLOYMENT OF HORSES.

THE breeding of horses is in England purely a matter of private speculation: the government does not keep studs for this purpose. Stallions are the property of individuals, who make them an object of speculation. The choice of one is always made with minute and reasonable heedfulness; their genealogy, transferred to special registers, is stated with as much, often with more exactness than that of their owners. A large price is generally charged for their services. Contemporaneously with this regulated crossing of breeds, others are allowed which are determined by the will of the proprietors of mares.

Sometimes the results are fortunate; but when they even fail considerably in the object to be attained, they, nevertheless, produce a visible amelioration in the breed. Hence that impress of a distinguished race which is generally apparent in English horses, whatever other imperfections they may be reproached with.

The attention bestowed on the training of horses contributes to modify their character, their temper, and even their shape, according to the nature of the labour to which they are destined.

The month of January is the epoch assigned for mares to foal: the reason of this is, that the foal subsisting for the first three or four months on the milk of the mare, it matters little that the meadows should, at this season, be covered with herbs which would be of no kind of service to him. Precautions are easily taken to shield him from the pernicious effects of cold. When he is arrived at an age when a change of diet is necessary, he finds in the newly-sprung

herbs a more substantial diet, and one more appropriate to the weakness of his organs. This diet, shared in common with the mother, restores to her milk a quality which it had already begun to lose; and it results from these circumstances, that the mare suffers so much the less in suckling, because the foal does not require the whole of her subsistence: besides, the food she takes is more nourishing. These considerations, based on common sense, are confirmed by the most successful experience, and they receive a constant application.

The English do not await the period of a complete developement of strength, before they employ the horse. Horses intended for racing are subjected, from the age of eighteen months, to violent and frequent exercise. The diet to which they are limited contains the greatest quantity of nutriment in the smallest possible space, and is chosen with a view to prevent the enlargement of the abdomen, and the relaxation of the muscular system. Brown

bread, biscuit, oats, and beans, with a small quantity of straw and hay cut and mixed up together, form the basis of their food.

Hunters are kept in the same manner, but their food is composed of a greater quantity of aliment. Care is taken not to allow them to drink before they leave the stable.

The food of horses otherwise employed varies according to the greater or less speed required of them. But, no matter how worked, the smallest possible quantity of water is given them. In order not to overload the stomach of the animals at the moment they are about to work, no food is given to them for an hour at least before their departure from the stables. On the road, they are only baited with a handful of wet hay, afterwards a bucket of water is offered them; but instead of allowing them to drink, it is raised up so as merely to wet the head. When the heat is great, and the roads are covered with dust, the nostrils and legs are carefully sponged.

Horses are daily exercised. Every morning, after being groomed, they are ridden out at

different paces for about an hour. When they stop at any place, instead of allowing them to remain stationary, they are slowly walked about in the neighbourhood.

The repeated groomings, and curryings, to which these animals are subjected, the minute attention bestowed upon them, do not appear to increase their strength or health. With less trouble, with infinitely less expense, the horses of other countries go through as much work (laying aside the consideration of fleetness), are as well fed, and in general attain a greater degree of longevity. Those useless and fatiguing details practised in the English stables may be therefore dispensed with.

The English understand better than any other people in the world, the employment of the horse. They use him in the saddle for riding and hunting, rarely for travelling. They travel in comfortable coaches, the progress of which is facilitated by the finest roads in the world, when the distance would occasion fatigue to a horse. All ages and sexes are in the habit of riding. From the infant of six

years old, who gallops on an Isle-of-Man pony, to the old gentleman who trusts himself to the steady and sure paces of his favourite horse—from the dandy of Hyde-park, who wishes the boldness of his horsemanship and the swiftness of his horse to be admired—to the city shopkeeper who hires a nag to enjoy the Sunday with his family in the country,—all the world rides, and appears to be the better for it. For if longevity is not greater in England than in the most healthful parts of Europe, it is certainly attained with less of accidental and premature infirmities.

The English have the rare talent of applying horses to all uses, without for a moment considering whether nature has intended them for such employments. They harness the smallest ponies, and make no account of riding the heaviest carriage horses. The hunter on whose back they gained the brush the evening before, carries them forty miles the next day in a tilbury. Such is the perfection of the English breed, that horses are never unsuited

for the service required of them, no matter what their shape and habits.

As relates to speed, the labour imposed on them is generally a forced one. Though the constant training to which they are kept up enables them temporarily to bear these great exertions, still it does not prevent those precocious disorders, which, limiting their strength to a few years, cause them rapidly to pass from the stable of a peer, where they have been successively employed in saddle or harness, to that of a licensed hackneyman, or a proprietor of stage coaches, whence they again descend to terminate painfully their short career in the humble mews of a hackney-coachman.

If English horses do more, under certain circumstances, than the horses of other countries, it is not because they are more vigorous, but because they are made to follow a peculiar and better understood regimen, and that the English are less apprehensive of exhausting them.

Thus, as I have said, from the age of

eighteen months race-horses are subjected to violent exercise. A great number sink under this treatment; others preserve their strength for a very limited number of years.

Light draught horses and hunters are not brought into so early use, and, accordingly, last longer; but they seldom pass the age of ten or twelve years without being injured by precocious disorders.

The patience and docility of the English horse are owing to the gentler treatment and continual care he receives. Nothing is rarer than a restive or wicked animal; nothing, also, is more uncommon than the infliction of brutal treatment on any of them. The breed is also distinguished by an intelligence, which manifests itself, whatever be the employments to which you may turn them.

Their colours are extremely various. The handsomest horses are generally found among the dark sorrel, the grey, and bright bay.

Owing to her admirable roads, England can dispense with the necessity of having particular breeds of horses, for every kind of service.

With the exception of racing, hunting, and the carriage of beer and coals in the cities, all sorts of horses are employed indiscriminately, without regard to their strength or sinew. If they perform the work required, the merit is less due to them than to the admirable state of the streets and roads. Besides, land carriage is so unimportant in England, that it is confined to articles of small weight.

France is better off in this respect. Each kind of labour is performed by the horse most fitted for that labour, and each breed unites the peculiar aptitudes most suited to the work in which it is engaged. From the enormous horses reared in Flanders for the transport of quarry-stones, and the lighter but taller horses furnished by the banks of the Rhone for the towage of that river, to the breed of Orleans and Poictou destined for the service of the post and the *diligences;* from the magnificent carriage-horses of Normandy to the slight and elegant breed of Limousin, each species of labour finds the animal most suited to perform it. And the shocking state of the

French roads renders those labours much more numerous and indispensable in France than in England.

If the merit of the respective breeds were to be judged by the celerity of posting and of public coaches, the advantage would most incontestably lie on the side of England. This, however, would be an erroneous mode of comparison. It is not because her horses go more quickly than those of France that England has the superiority in this respect. It is because they are better harnessed and better driven; because they travel over more level and even roads, and draw lighter carriages. Give to France similar advantages, and the results will be similar, with even fewer horses. All doubt would cease on this head, if people considered that the *malle-poste* from Paris to Bordeaux takes no longer to perform the journey than the English mail to travel from London to Edinburgh, (the distance between these four points is the same,) and that the French horses have, nevertheless, to surmount greater difficulties, owing to the

bad state of the roads, the shape and weight of the carriages, and the mode of harnessing.

In a word, if the race-horses and hunters of England have a superior fleetness, their strength exceeds not that of the best horses of this kind in France, while it must be admitted that the English horses are sooner worn out. English draught horses last longer than racers and hunters, but not so long as the French draught horses. The average age of animals still capable of doing their work well, is from ten to eleven years in England, and from fourteen to fifteen in France.

Beautiful horses are no doubt to be seen in London; but the others, even of the lowest breeds, are so uniformly well groomed and trimmed, that they assume a brilliant coat and smart appearance, and people who judge the breed of a horse by the manner in which he carries his tail, pronounce at once that there are very many better horses in London than in Paris. In France, there is more regularity in the classification of breeds, and a better adaptation of them to the services to which they are des-

tined. In examining the question without prejudice, it must be acknowledged, that with the exception of extreme swiftness, (the swiftness of racers,) and certain conventional conformations of limb, the French horses may stand a comparison with the English for all the essential qualities, and are preferable to them for the peculiar labour to which the many respective breeds of horses in France are prepared.

As to the selling price, it is pretty much the same in both countries, with the exception of race-horses and hunters, whose prices have no other limits than the caprice and fortune of those who own, and those who wish to buy them. But if the ordinary value of the animal is to be estimated by his duration, it is clearly less in France than it is in England. In fact, if the labour of a horse in England, commencing at three years old, and ending at eleven, lasts no longer than eight years, in France the labour ought to be calculated from four years old to fifteen, which brings the duration of work to eleven years, or about a third more than the length of the labour of an English

horse. Now, if the labour of two horses of an equal value of one hundred guineas, is limited the one to eight years' duration, whilst the other is extended to eleven, the first will have undergone, each year, a depreciation of twelve guineas and a half, while in the second the depreciation will have amounted only to nine guineas. Considering, however, the price and quality equal, it is clearly more advantageous to buy a French than an English horse.

HORSE-RACING.

ENGLAND, with a degree of pride, places horse-racing among the first of her national tastes. The richer classes devote the superfluity of their wealth, a part even of what luxury might require, to the indulgence of these sports. An enormous expenditure is apparently made for the pleasure of seeing horses run, which are unfit for any other kind of labour, and which their owners would not venture to mount to ride the shortest distance, and still less to follow the fox-hounds. At bottom, (though perhaps those who thus spend their money do not reflect upon the important result,) the end and object is to produce, in the English breed of horses, that improvement which brings them to the highest degree of perfection.

NEWMARKET.

Newmarket is one of the most renowned race-courses in England. If it be not filled with a crowd of fashionables, if the small extent of the town, and the difficulty of finding lodgings, if the monotony of the surrounding country, and the rarity of large mansions, drive away from it that portion of society which does not wish to purchase enjoyment at the expense of comfort—it is there at least that the amateurs of sporting send those horses of their stud whose fame they are anxious to establish. It is there too that the largest bets are made. It is there, moreover, that, in the interval not devoted to racing, the most immoderate gambling takes place.

In the middle of a vast plain, terminating in a gentle slope, is discovered a range of decent houses, built on both sides of a broad road. The signs hanging from the greater part of these houses, and the bills placed at the windows of others, plainly indicate that the town is the resort of a population brought

thither by adventitious circumstances. This town is Newmarket, which, like all English towns, is without any public walks.

The race-course is very near the town, which, hidden by the sinuosities of the ground, breaks not the uniformity of a landscape uninterrupted by either houses or trees. In this species of desert, which ill repays the labour bestowed upon its cultivation, and at the extremity of an entrenchment dug by the Romans, a piece of ground unfolds itself, of three or four miles in extent, and kept in the best order. This is the course of Newmarket. Moveable posts, placed at a considerable distance from each other, point out the line which the horses are to take; other posts, more elevated, serve as *rendez-vous* to the betters, who group around them in the interval between the races, in order to make bets, or to complete those not already concluded. To a spectator unaccustomed to such scenes, these assemblages have the aspect of an auction. Each person cries out the name of the horse on which he bets, the conditions of the bet, and

the sum which he risks. Another better accepts the bet, a note of which is taken down in the betting-book held by each of the interested parties.

These bets are in general very complicated, and great experience is necessary readily to understand them in all their details. According to the idea people form of the relative strength of such or such a horse, they bet ten, twenty, sometimes thirty to one. When horses have run for the first time, the betters study the paces of the animals, and determine to bet according to the idea they have formed from so casual an observation. Gamblers call this "inspiration."

The bets being made, each person takes his stand as near as possible to a species of turret or sentry box, placed on wheels, which is occupied by the two judges of the races. Posts, with a rope running through them, trace out the line which the spectators should not transgress, while men on foot and on horseback carrying large hunting-whips constitute a sort of police, and exercise their duties, without regard for ranks, towards all whom an indis-

creet curiosity draws beyond the prescribed limits. A line of carriages of all shapes, and a few waggons on which moveable huts are erected, destined for ladies who have no wish to mix in a crowd little disposed to courtesy, complete the picture.

After a delay of some minutes, you perceive, on the ridge of a hill, the quickest horses stimulated by the spurs of the jockeys. In a few seconds they reach the spot where the course terminates. It is here that the passions not only of those who have stakes, but of the spectators, who have, moreover, some interest in the result, owing to more or less heavy bets, express, by action and cries, either joy or grief, irony or reproach. At length, the winner is proclaimed, and horses and jockeys retire to a building, where the former are wrapped up in horsecloths, and the latter are weighed, in order to see whether such as have not the necessary weight, have rid themselves, during the race, of the lead which it is customary to attach to the waists of those who are deficient in the regulated weight.

Each race lasts but a few seconds. You only perceive the horses when they have attained the ridge of a piece of ground whose declivity inclines towards the spectators; so that the moment of their passing before you with the rapidity of lightning, is the only opportunity afforded you of judging of the race. The sum of pleasure and interest which a race thus procures may be recapitulated in the following exclamations of the by-standers: "Here they are!" "How they fly!" "How rapidly they went!" "You owe me a thousand guineas." This last interruption never fails to crown the enthusiasm, and, with many, to allay it.

The sight of the crowd of visiters and lookers-on affords little interest. It is quite the fashion to leave at Newmarket the fine horses and magnificent equipages in which you arrive, and to change them, before you reach the ground, for hired horses and carriages.

Thus the lord who runs horses of a value amounting to some thousands of guineas, and

who makes bets of still larger amount, appears on the course mounted on a pony, and riding beside the post-chariot occupied by his family. People, then, do not go to Newmarket to behold an imposing spectacle, or a scene that strikes the imagination: the observer, however, will not have come in vain, if it be his wish to study the episodes of a race.

It is curious to notice the accidental intercourse which takes place between two extremes of English society—between the lords and their jockeys: we may see a duke, or a peer of the united kingdom, who hesitates not to exhibit himself with his arm passed under that of the jockey who is to ride his favourite horse, and animating him by his counsel and encouragement. Nor do others scruple to shake the hand of an ex-boxer enriched by the blows he has given or received, and who wishes, now that he is rich, to engage in the pursuit of betting his money against that of the highest personages. Some there are, also, who practise this system of perfect equality to such an extent, that they do not scruple

to make a daily companion of the chief of a London gaming-house.

It is no less singular to observe the means employed to reduce the jockeys above the standard, to a feather-weight.*

To substantial food compressed into the smallest possible space, are joined frequent purgatives; the jockey is also made to walk out covered with warm clothing, in order to pro-

* The following story, admitted as an article of faith among sporting amateurs, will give some idea of the importance attached to the weight which a horse should carry.

Lord —— had two horses of equal strength, and two jockeys of similar weight: each time these horses ran, victory declared itself unvaryingly, and in a marked manner, alternately for either horse. One day, however, both horses arrived at the same second of time; all were at a loss to guess the cause of this, till one of the jockeys perceived, on regaining the stable, that he had lost the key he should have had in his pocket: it then became known that each jockey was alternately to carry the key, and that it was the weight of the key which caused the jockey who carried it to lose the race. One may judge by the credit given to this fable (which probably only marks the influence exercised on the speed of horses by the weight of the rider), how much importance is attached to the weight of a jockey.—*Note of the Author.*

mote perspiration; and a number of other precautions of the same nature are adopted.

After having formed his opinion of the speed of the horses, the stranger would wish to examine their make; but this is an object of difficult attainment: you can only see them in the stable, to which it is not easy to procure access — or at exercise, which they take regularly twice a day at a slow pace; and, on both occasions, they are so covered over with horse-cloths that you can only see the nostrils, eyes, and limbs.

Race-horses are in general seventeen hands high. They are of slender limbs; but the developement of their hams, and the form of their joints, indicate great strength, and account for their speed. Their bodies are thin and well shaped; the muscles and veins are delineated under a very fine skin and a short and uniform coat of hair. It would be wrong, however, to attribute this conformation to the constitution of the horse: it is the result of the system of food and exercise to which he is subjected. The food given him is not over abundant. The stomach, and consequently

the frame of the bones, that of the body in particular, are little developed. The action impressed on the muscles by forced speed gives to the muscular parts a projection and developement which is promoted by the absence of fat: the shape and conformation of race-horses are therefore the result of the manner in which they are bred and trained. In order to convince oneself of this, it will suffice to consider that, destined to serve as models to all other breeds, they produce hunters, carriage and even waggon horses, according to the manner in which they are crossed. It is by their means that the perfection of the English race is kept up — a perfection obtained by the best directed efforts, and at an expense which, in France, would exceed belief.

It would hardly be credited that there are proprietors of horses, in England, who expend from five to six thousand pounds a year in the keep of race-horses, (a hundred and twenty-five to a hundred and fifty thousand francs,) without reaping any other advantage from such an expenditure than the pleasure of see-

83926

ing them run two or three times over a race-course, or the uncertain chance of winning a considerable bet, and a few silver cups on which the names of the horse, the jockey, the master, and the circumstances of the victory, are inscribed. These are heir-looms, which are transmitted from generation to generation, and which proudly adorn the sideboard of a dining-room on great occasions.

Bets are not always made on the race-course, and within view of the horses which are the objects of them. A great number are made in the Clubs of London, and also in an establishment where such matters are transacted. People bet on a horse which has never run, but whose genealogy is known; they also bet on the foal which shall have such or such a horse for sire or dam. The race to be run, in this case, cannot take effect for three years afterwards; but the bet nevertheless prevails in full force. It sometimes happens, however, as the man in the fable says, that,

"Le Roi, l'âne ou moi serons morts."

At three different periods of the year, and during three consecutive weeks at each epoch,

the race-course of Newmarket brings to that small town a numerous concourse of amateurs of this kind of pleasure, and they impress on the desert country, which surrounds the course, a life and movement which contrast with its sad and mournful aspect.

During the remainder of the year, the eye only meets strings of horses carefully covered, whose slow and measured paces provoke the impatience of the spectator, who would wish to see them putting forth all the speed of which their brisk and bounding forms afford a promise.

EPSOM.

The neighbourhood of London gives a different aspect to Epsom races. The roads thither are covered with every variety of carriage, and with horsemen mounted on steeds of all kinds. This heap of carriages crossing and passing each other, without regard for the elegance of the vehicle, or the quality and condition of the party; the butcher's cart cutting out the gig of an exquisite; the hackney coach opposing its heavy mass to the passage of the four-in-hand landau, driven by a lord in the

dress of a coachman, with a nosegay in his side-button—the full toilette of a fine lady covered with dust or mud by the clownish freak of a low fellow—all these present a really curious spectacle. Arrived on the race-ground, it is no less amusing to perceive the numerous expedients to which people have recourse, to form a sort of ambulatory board for, the lunch which is to enable the spectator to await the commencement of the racing (half-past two) with less impatience.

The spot set apart for the race-course exhibits the aspect of a country-fair ground. On either side of the line within which the horses run, are ranged the thousands of carriages which have transported thither the eager company. The intermediate space is occupied by gipseys, who go about telling fortunes, begging, taking all that is given to them, robbing all that falls under their hand. When a spectator, led by the hope of obtaining a better place, attempts to traverse the race-ground, he is driven back by the blows of policemen. This species of episode excites among those

present an hilarity which expresses itself by general shouts of applause.

The spectators who cannot find a place near this line, are ranged on an overturned waggon or buggy, one hundred feet behind. The rest of the scene is occupied by tents, and by a magnificent pavilion reserved for personages of distinction.

The race-course has a semicircular form. It presents visible undulations. The point of departure varies, according to the custom, and the strength of the horses. The point of arrival is always the same. A much better view is had of the race at Epsom than of that at Newmarket, and a much worse one than in the riding-houses of France.

Epsom races afford an amusing sight to such as seek to gratify their curiosity in vast assemblies of people, in a noisy scene, and in the inconvenience of a crowd. They present a different sort of interest to those who speculate on the greater or less speed of a horse, who oftener still speculate on their own address, and on the folly of their neighbours,

who calculate on the cleverness of their own jockeys and the complaisance of those of their antagonists.

At Newmarket, the races are intended for genuine amateurs; at Epsom, it is a spectacle for a great capital, and is every way worthy of it.

STEEPLE CHASE.

A MANIA of *manias* rules England. The English love to think of that which has never been thought of by any other people, and to do that which has never been done elsewhere. This is conceived to be originality, and, because they shall not be imitated, they therefore conclude they are inimitable. It would be a thankless office to combat such an idea. It exists; it does no evil, and produces some good. Why should people wish to modify it? If they trouble themselves about it at all, it should be to verify its existence and effects.

Among the national tastes, — the taste for steeple chases, or to speak more properly, races

towards steeples, occupies a distinguished rank. This amusement is necessarily reserved for rich people, owing to the expense which it occasions. In consequence of the absence of all accessory interest, it suits English habits. It is numbered among their favourite amusements, from the bets which it originates. It is not wonderful, therefore, that it has assumed the character of a passion, and that a steeple chase should be an event of which people speak beforehand, of which they talk afterwards, and whose smallest details are laid hold of with avidity.

On the appointed day, the roads are covered with horsemen making their way to the place appointed for the race. As yet all is ignorance concerning the details of the match, which are only determined at the instant, and by a species of jury named by the competitors. The general conditions are, that you shall attain a point designated by nearly a straight line, and from which you may not deviate more than one hundred paces, — that no gate shall be opened, and that none of

the horsèmen can alight to overcome an obstacle.

The line of the steeple chase has generally an extent of four or five miles, and is planted with flags.

On a signal given, all parties start forth. The country which presents the greatest number of obstacles, such as hedges, ditches, gates, gutters, rivers, is chosen in preference, as the theatre of this amusement. Every thing is, or ought to be leaped over. Frequent accidents reduce the number of competitors. Two or three among the boldest, or the most foolish, or the best mounted, arrive at the goal. He who has first attained it wins, besides the bets he has made, the united sums that each competitor has paid in order to be permitted to run. A dinner, followed by copious libations, restores, consoles, and dries those who are exhausted with fatigue, have lost their money, or have fallen into the ditches or streams the breadth of which has proved the strength of their horses to be at fault.

The taste for steeple chases will not be understood, and still less shared by other nations. But it must be a lively and attractive pleasure in England, since so many people risk their money and limbs in this amusement.

FIELD SPORTS.

COURSING.

HAPPY the country in which the fleetness of a horse, the management of a kennel, and the death of a fox, are such important affairs, that they absorb in a great part, the time and thoughts of men who have all possible means to make a better use of one and the other. England is that country. After horse-racing, to which considerable sums are devoted, comes coursing, the relative expense of which is not less, and which extends the mania of betting to the lower classes of society. At Newmarket, both amusements alternately engage the leisure of men of rank and fortune. Elsewhere, coursing is the favourite amusement of rich people

— of country squires in easy circumstances. The following is the manner in which this latter amusement is indulged.

In order to conciliate the minds of the farmers, who are great amateurs of this kind of amusement, and to make them bear, with less impatience, the injury done the harvest by the game, the great proprietors consent to allow coursing to be carried on in their grounds. On the appointed day, the dogs are led thither. Such as should run together are coupled. These arrangements being made, and the bets settled, the sportsmen range themselves near each other, and walk behind a man on foot, who holds in leash two greyhounds, and who lets them loose upon the first hare which is seen to spring. The sportsmen follow without being stopped either by tillage ground, hedges, or ditches, of none of which do they make any account. At length they arrive at the taking of the hare.

Two other dogs are substituted for the first; and the sport is continued in the same manner, till the end of the chase. The prize

is adjudged, not to the dog which takes the hare, but to the dog who having passed her oftenest is therefore considered the swiftest. Judgment is pronounced by a judge not belonging to the county, but sent by the Greyhound Club, and who is paid very dearly by the betters.

In order to preserve the strength and speed of the greyhounds, they are almost exclusively fed with a species of mutton broth; and as the humid, cold, and variable temperature of the climate might exercise a pernicious influence, they are wrapped up in clothing appropriate to the season. Their beds consist of woollen cushions, and they travel in carriages. Lukewarm baths await them on their return from the chase, and relieve them from its fatigues.

This coursing of greyhounds is adopted less with a view to the pleasures of the chase, than to minister to the rage for betting. It is a means of risking large sums, an amusement which, independently of the loss of bets, entails other very considerable expenses. The pay of

the keepers must be added to the cost of the dogs' food. To each course or run is attached a judge, who, following the example of his colleagues of a higher order, charges a very high price for the justice he distributes; and as it would be unbecoming to separate without a dinner, the bill of the innkeeper contributes to swell out the already very large sums which this species of pleasure entails upon those who have indulged in it. The fortunate betters rejoice; they who lose, dream of opportunities which may prove more favourable to them. Gamblers are the same in all countries.

SHOOTING.

In all that relates to pleasure, the English do not look beyond the mere enjoyment in hand. They dine to get rid of hunger; they display luxury in order to spend money, they ride to reach a journey's end. They are regardless of all those accessory enjoyments so highly prized in other countries. Therefore it is that they shoot to destroy game, without stopping to consider the process by which

they attain this end. They hardly seek in the dog which they employ that training which gives such a charm to sporting itself. The care of collecting the birds which they kill devolves on a keeper who accompanies them. As soon as the game is down, they care no more about it. In order to escape the fatigue even of a wish, they leave the management of the day's sporting under the control of the keeper, and do not think of counteracting the indications of his caprice.

To shooting in the open plain, shooting in the woods succeeds. Placed at suitable spots, the sportsmen fire on the game, which those who are appointed to that task, start without allowing to the birds the feeble defence which the rapidity of their flight might oppose to the address of the sportsman. The destruction of game is immense, and nothing but the careful and expensive efforts exerted to keep up the breed would suffice to maintain an adequate supply. The game usually killed amounts to eight hundred or a thousand birds, when the sports take place on a property

of moderate extent. On large estates, the amount of game killed is frequently ten times that number.

The indifference displayed in the sport, manifests itself in an equal degree when it is over. The sportsmen hardly know the number of game killed; and were it not for their efforts to resist the inclination to sleep, which the fatigues of the day would prompt them to indulge, they would almost lose the recollection of the idle manner in which they had thrown away their time.

FOX-HUNTING.

On a cold and foggy day, the ground impregnated with water, in which the horses sank up to their hams, we set out from H. H's on a journey of twelve miles, to reach the spot appointed for a fox-hunt. We journeyed quickly thither, on horses which we exchanged for hunters that awaited us at the place of meeting. About sixty sportsmen in red coats, an equal number of farmers in their every-day dress, two huntsmen distinguished by their prepared

leather caps, and a horn fixed in a case to their saddle-bows, with forty or fifty dogs of ordinary shape and cropped ears, composed (with the fox who was immediately unbagged) the materials of the hunt.

The animal had hardly put his foot to the ground before the sportsmen commenced a hunting gallop, in order to follow a pack of prodigious swiftness, and to which the hedges and ditches which separate the fields gave a great advantage at starting. The rapidity of the dogs not allowing their cry to be heard, it was only by the aid of the eyesight, and by a sort of instinct, that the sportsmen were enabled to follow in the direction they had taken. After a lapse of ten minutes, the hunt presented nothing more than a confused crowd of horsemen seeking to pass each other, bounding over hedges, gates, and ditches, all which they encountered with a resolution which did honour to the astonishing strength of the horses, and to the intrepidity of the riders.

Without having followed an English hunt,

one cannot form an idea of all that the indifference to self-preservation may bring a man to require of the strength and training of a horse. Almost all the hedges are separated from the fields they inclose by two ditches, each of two feet in breadth. The horse must clear at one leap the two ditches and the hedge. Woe to the rider if, wrongly calculating his spring, the animal puts his fore-feet in the second ditch. A terrible fall is the consequence. If the ditches are too large to be cleared at one leap, the horse lands on the tuft of earth which separates them, stops an instant, and, from his own instinct, and without hesitation, attains the soil (always downwards) in which the second ditch is dug out. These leaps "*de haut en bas*" are frequent, and do not cause many accidents.

When a hedge is too high, the riders seek a place where the branches, being more asunder, present a sort of passage. Thither you direct your horse, on whose neck you extend yourself, yielding to the instinct of the animal, who brushes through the difficulties with which his

way is beset, with admirable address. Neither the double ditch, the hedge, nor the briars, which are spread across, nothing, in short, arrests him. The effect of this species of leap astonishes the spectator who sees it for the first time, whether from the training and the species of reasoning it exhibits in the horse, or from the haste with which horse and rider disappear.

After an hour's race, and without the sagacity or the talent of the huntsmen being laid under contribution, the fox was taken. Two or three horsemen whom chance, or the speed of their horses, rather than their good management had favoured, were in at the death. The sharp sounds of the huntsmen's horns at this instant summoned the whole field; but a quarter of an hour elapsed before the crowd of amateurs were assembled. The tail of the fox was offered to the most distinguished rider. The high feats and accidents were now recapitulated, and general laughter was caused by the stains of mud which revealed the falls it might have been wished to conceal. Some directed them-

selves to the places where they had witnessed the fall of those of their friends who were not present at the death, with a view to offer that assistance which, hurried away by the ardour of the chase, they did not think of proposing at a more seasonable moment. At length the hunt broke up, and each one returned home.

All that I have stated concerning fox-hunting is applicable to stag-hunting, which only takes places in the neighbourhood of the royal Parks, and with the royal hounds.

Subjected to a regimen nearly similar to that in use for race-horses, exercised and fed like them in a peculiar manner, the stag intended to be hunted is set at liberty in a country unknown to him. Frightened by the cries and approach of the dogs, he runs till weakness obliges him to seek an asylum in a court or building with the sight and uses of which his domestic habits have familiarized him. The sportsmen arrive before the dogs can reach him, and a carriage always at hand carries the stag back to the park from whence he had been removed.

Every care is then bestowed to restore to the animal the strength required to furnish anew an amusement to which, in the end, he falls a victim.

The passion of sporting is universal in England. From the man of rank and fortune, who devotes to it considerable sums, and almost all his time and thoughts—even to the farmer, who not content with unyoking one of the horses which draws his plough, and thereby augmenting the number of sportsmen, is also satisfied that his well-tilled fields will be thoroughly over-run by one hundred horses,—all are enthusiastic in this kind of pleasure. Ladies take great interest in listening to the recitals of the chase; nor is the time given by infants to this amusement considered as thrown away.

If hunting is looked at as a means of trying the strength of horses, it must be acknowledged that nowhere is this end better attained than in England. Should one seek in it a reasonable pleasure, an amusement dependent on certain accessory combinations, the

manner of hunting in England must be placed very much below the system as practised in other countries. Here no talent is required on the part of the rider. None of that knowledge which mingles self-love with pleasure is necessary. The harmony arising from the mingling and concordance of dogs and of horses is unknown. Every thing, even to the limbs of the sportsman, is sacrificed to the idle mania of a run without fixed duration and without arrangement. Properly speaking, you do not hunt, for rarely you see the animal pursued—as rarely do you perceive the dogs—and you never hear them. You are limited to run in the direction in which you remark horsemen, which direction you suppose to be that of the chase.

I can conceive a foreigner following an English hunt, to describe the folly of it, or with a view to buy some of the admirable horses which show off on the occasion; but I cannot conceive that he would be tempted to renew the experiment.

ROADS, CANALS, SUSPENSION BRIDGES, RAILWAYS.

AN examination of those works which have for object the improvement of internal communication presents an interesting study, whether that study relates to art, or applies itself to political economy. In France, where the Government is almost the only *entrepreneur* of works of general utility, the persons employed on its behalf are careful to avoid all considerations relating to the expense. This, however, is the object of minute attention in England, where private interest intervenes in every thing, as well in the initiative, as in the execution of projects. Thus, before commencing an enterprise, people wish

to satisfy themselves that its results will be commensurate with the outlay it will require. They do not only think of present returns; they consider the returns to be obtained at a future time, by an improvement and increase in the kind of production which the communication about to be established should favour. The enterprise is not undertaken till satisfactory data are collected on this subject.

The same prudence is apparent in the execution of the work. Without an absolute certainty of the degree and extent of the circulation, and, consequently, of the amount of profits, the project assumes only the character of a trial and experiment; but if it be found productive, it soon receives that character of grandeur and durability which consorts with the importance of the communication and the prospect of the advantages it should procure. This is the manner of proceeding, in a country where good sense is first consulted, and where not a step is taken without being assured of the solidity of the ground on which you tread.

Some exceptions, however, tend to prove

that all enterprises of this nature are not equally advantageous; that, far from returning an interest proportioned to the capital expended on them, they require new sacrifices for the continuation and repair of the works. What is the conclusion to be deduced from this? That there are bad speculators. But it should be acknowledged that English speculators deceive themselves in a degree less prejudicial to their interests than those of other countries, because their advances are relatively less considerable. There are also false calculations, which are not the effect of error, but of a culpable speculation on the part of those who embark in them. There are men whose object is to deceive the credulous confidence of professional dupes who are always disposed to give their money to the first who asks it of them, and who even prefer the seductive promises of the adventurer to the prudent reserve of the wise man. But if there are bad speculations of this kind in England, they are fewer than in France, and they hardly ever exercise an untoward influence upon the exe-

cution of the work. The "company" suffer, but the public behold an increase of the sources whence flows their prosperity.

ROADS.

The superiority of the English roads over those of the greater part of Europe, and more especially of France, cannot be contested. The causes of this superiority are far too interesting to the good administration of all countries, to be passed over without mature examination. The excellence of the English roads not only contributes to the prosperity of the country, but it affords to the parishes and individuals to whom the management of the roads is confided, a subject of self-love and of pride. The least equivocal blame would not fail to stimulate the parish or county which should neglect this branch of its administration; and proceedings would be directed against the overseer or the company who should not fulfil the conditions imposed, in exchange for the receipt of the toll levied. Public opinion, then, or respect for contracted

engagements, exercises on this subject a powerful and salutary influence.

In general, roads which may be called of the first class, are under the control of the counties, which cause them to be executed, or give them over to companies who remunerate themselves in the receipt of tolls for the advances made. These tolls are often granted to parishes.

It is to this system, repudiated in France, that England is indebted for those numerous communications so well adapted to her general and local wants. Here, the opening or the completion of a road, or the building of a bridge, depends not on the consent of the government, or the state of the budget. Public interest alone resolves the question. If the opening of a road is a work of real utility, it presents, in the produce of the toll appropriated to it, the means of covering the expenses of its construction. In the contrary supposition, it will not be undertaken; and in one and the other hypotheses, private interest is the clearest appreciator of what is most suitable to the public good. The same rule applies to the

completion and repair of roads. If the road is a very considerable thoroughfare, it is undertaken with greater care. The expense of repairing it is in proportion to the wear and tear; but the amount of toll also increases in the ratio of the travelling. Lastly, the repair, the degree of perfection in the levelling, and the general good management, are always secured by the power reserved to other companies, of establishing a rivalry by creating a parallel road or a fragment of one.

The fear of this opposition produces an effect observable at every step. In the beginning, English roads are made with the greatest parsimony. Their dimensions are calculated on the strictest computation of the amount of travelling. They are always made upon the ground on which the old roads stood. Hence they are subjected to all the irregularities which the local casualties and the jumble of properties rendered inseparable from the old roads. They economize in the terraces. The declivities preserve their rapid inclination. The roads are encased in excavations sur-

mounted with thick hedges, or they run to the surface of the soil, no effort being made to correct the inequalities. But in proportion as the necessity of improvement is better appreciated, as the produce of the toll increases—as the probability of still augmenting it by improvements which would bring a great number of strangers is felt, improvements are undertaken. You see declivities softened down, windings losing their steepness, and often wholly disappearing to give place to straight lines and to a greater developement of breadth. Thus the road reaches a degree of perfection commensurate with its utility.

The nature of the soil also contributes much to the good condition of the roads. In general the soil is a very strong one. Gravel is found everywhere at a short distance, and in order to obtain it, it is only necessary to raise a thin coat of vegetable soil, which covers a quarry of very hard and abundant silex. In places where a sufficiency of gravel is not to be obtained, recourse is had to freestone, and oftener still to a gravel drawn from quarries, some-

times very far distant, and brought by sea, or upon canals, or railways, to the neighbourhood of the places at which they are required. It is from the quarries of Scotland that London is supplied with the incalculable quantity of granite necessary for the keeping in repair her streets, which are nearly all macadamized.

The nature of the transport, and the form of the carriages, add their effect to those causes which contribute to the good condition of the roads.

The multiplicity of canals and of navigable rivers, and their application to the transport of materials of great weight, relieve the roads from all carriages except those adapted to light burdens. The rare exceptions to the contrary, far from being prejudicial, appear on the contrary to be advantageous, owing to the extreme breadth and the eccentric nature of the felloes, as well as to the exclusive employment of chariots with four wheels. The manner of travelling has also its effect; carriages do not follow each other in convoys as in France. They do not move in each other's track, and consequently create no ruts.

The roads are, therefore, chiefly resorted to by carriages on springs, very light when compared with those employed for the same purpose in other countries, and which, moving on a uniform surface, without selecting, in preference, one part above another of that surface, present an equal weight, and never that degree of absolute pressure producing those jerks so frequent on badly made roads.

Lastly, one of the principal causes of the good condition of the roads is to be found in the proper application of the enormous sums expended, not in the formation, but in the minute repair of the roads.* These sums are at least

* In general, the relation in number and extent between roads of the first class or great roads, and parish roads, is as one to four. The keeping the first in repair costs annually 160*l.* sterling (4000 fr.) per mile, or 400*l.* sterling (10,000 fr) per league.

The cost of keeping the second class of roads in repair is 40*l.* sterling (1000 fr.) per mile, or 100*l.* sterling (2500 fr.) per league. The average expense of all kinds of road is 68*l.* sterling (1760 fr.) per mile, or 170*l.* sterling (4250 fr.) per league.

Unforeseen expenses are calculated at 10-100ths, such as the charges of Committees, lawyers' fees, &c.

Extraordinary repairs and improvements are comprised in the computation of the average expense of roads.

quadruple those expended in France for the same object, though the causes of deterioration are much less powerful, and the price of materials less.

The breadth of roads varies according to the circumstances which mingle in their plan, not only from one road to another, but from one portion to another of the same road. If the land necessary to the making or chalking out the straight line of a road is of little value, the roads are made broad. If a considerable expense would result from raising the roads, or from the purchase of a greater extent of ground, the roads are reduced to the dimensions strictly necessary. Between rows of houses and in places where clearings, levellings, or embankments are necessary, the roads are narrow. The want of breadth is supplied in all that is necessary to the safety of travellers, by gates carefully kept up. In the mountains of Scotland, and in Wales, the sides of precipices are rendered secure, or rather indicated, by finger-posts of stone painted according to their height in white and black strokes, in order to be easily

distinguished in the night, or in the midst of snow.

In general, the breadth of the roads, with the exception of London and the great towns, does not exceed eight metres; but the whole of this breadth is covered over with stone. Accordingly, though not so broad as those of France, they afford more room for passengers.

The additional quantity of stones required does not create any other pecuniary outlay than an advance in the capital appropriated to the formation of the road; for no additional expense of keeping the road in repair is the consequence. As the carriages that travel on a road only occupy the space allowed for covering it over with stone, it matters little what part they go over.

This mode contributes in another way to the preservation of roads. The water runs away more easily, because it is not stopped by the spongy earth which forms the useless deposits on the roads of France. Thus the soil of the road is constantly preserved from a humidity, which in the opposite system is kept there

by the infiltration of the waters, which stagnate on the side of the road. The small dimensions of the materials, and the mode of their employment, add their effect to the causes just enumerated.

The English roads have neither ditches nor elevations. They are almost flat. The waters run off by the aid of the almost insensible convexity which is given to them, and still more by the entire absence of ruts, the very appearance of which is guarded against by a careful superintendence. The waters are received on either side of the road by a species of gutters paved in broken stones with flood-gates. They are conducted by other gutters, or small ditches, to those spots where they cease to be hurtful to the road. The purchase of land necessary to the site for ditches is thus economised, and the very considerable expense of their construction and repair, as well as the deterioration occasioned by the stagnation of the waters which penetrate from the ditches to the ground of the *chaussées*, are likewise saved.

Another system in the making of roads, a

system due to the genius of Mr. Telford, appears to prevail over that of Mr. Macadam, from which it differs in this respect, that, in place of a convexity, the road receives a decided inclination from one to the other of its sides, and that the largest of the stones is only about one third of the thickness of that of Mr. M'Adam, or eight to nine centimetres.

The inclination given to the road is said to render the draught easier, because, whilst the declivity of the wheels diminishes the rubbing against the axle-tree, the collar, by pressing more on one shoulder of the horse than on the other, procures for the animal a kind of relief which alternates each time that circumstances vary the direction of the inclination. Experiments, the results of which have not carried conviction to my mind, appear to have given to this double observation, in the eyes of the English engineers, the character of an undeniable truth.

The reduction of the thickness of the gravelling is but perhaps a strained application of the principle established by Mr. Macadam,

that the inferior or lower coats of gravel being placed so as to establish a sort of anvil, on which the superior coats are bruised under the pressure of the wheels, it was advisable to diminish as much as possible the thickness and do away with the resistance of the first, and to place the others on a soil which, owing to its flexibility, would obviate a part of this inconvenience, by only exposing the stones to the action of one of those forces which bring about the destruction of the road. This is a true and proper system, provided you admit that which exists in England, a careful keeping in repair of the roads.

The first cost of the making of roads, already reduced by the causes enumerated, is still more so by the slightness of the stones. It is seldom that these layers have a greater depth than twenty-five centimetres. They are laid in trenches, without curb-stones, on a soil strengthened by the rolling-stone; and, when the ground is of bad quality, upon a bed of marl, of the remnants of buildings, of the sand of old roads, &c.

The stones are reduced to the size of a hen's egg, and covered over with round flints of still smaller dimension. These materials are passed through a sieve or skreen, the intervals of which reject those stones that exceed the requisite size.

The dust and mud are carefully scraped off with the help of rakes, and oftener still by brooms, for which, considering the excellent state of the roads, large rakes, drawn by horses, might be substituted, as their oblique forms would sweep down to the sloping side of the road the materials which should be removed from it.

Holes or ruts are seldom repaired, because it is remarked that the stones applied to this operation are soon reduced to powder; and besides the jerk which they give to carriages, they injure that part of the road contiguous to the part repaired. When a partial repair is needed, it is put off till repairs are about to be commenced to a certain extent of road. Partial repairs take place by applying the pick-axe to the surface of the road, which hinders the new stones from rolling about, and

disposes them to embody themselves with the old ones, by the aid of a light coat of stones, of equal size and compactness. These layers are placed on the road whenever, by the grinding into powder of the first coat of gravel, the second would be exposed.

The stones are broken by the hand on anvils of cast-iron, framed in a species of hopper, open on the side of the workman. The whole machine has the form of a wheel-barrow. Thrown in shovels into the hopper, the stones are afterwards placed one by one on the anvil by means of an iron ring, fixed to a shaft, or handle, which the workman holds in his left hand, and broken by the aid of a hammer, the head of which presents a hollow space. The precaution taken to pass the stones through a skreen at the moment they are shovelled out, limits the operation of breaking them to those above a certain size, for which it is indispensable.

The skreening is performed thus: the workman who extracts the stones, throws them into a skreen, the rings of which are three or four

centimetres in width, and are composed of thick iron wire. This skreen is supported and moved about by another workman. The stones which have the requisite dimension, fall; the rest are placed in heaps, for the purpose of being broken. The same operation is repeated by means of a closer skreen, of a form different from the other, and intended to separate the earth from the stones.

The transport of earth is accomplished with inconceivable economy, order, and rapidity, by means of cars, raised upon iron wheels, thirty centimetres in diameter, and running upon railways. These railways are formed of different pieces of iron, each of sixty centimetres in length, laid upon boards, and fixed into one another by a piece of iron at both ends, in the shape of a swallow-tail. The railway is continued in exact proportion with the progress of the works. A single horse performs, with little or no fatigue, the labour of four horses, owing to the greater weight he is enabled to draw with accelerated rapidity. The cars are not jerked on the road, and they experience

but a slight deterioration from use. They are easy to load, owing to their little elevation. This practice is attended with inconsiderable expense, which is compensated by the economy introduced in carrying on works upon a larger scale; and it is productive of incalculable advantages to the companies who have undertaken to construct and repair the roads.

The general repair of the roads is confided to road-makers, whose employment consists in picking up the surface, in order to spread the stones; in causing the water to run off, and in scraping the mud to either side, whence it is immediately removed, when it is not intended to serve for the making of foot-paths.

The greater number of roads offer to the pedestrian a footpath a metre and a half broad, and raised to an elevation of from fifteen to twenty centimetres. These footpaths are covered with a small gravel, unfit for the pavement of the road. The gutter intended for the carrying away of the water, is made on the inner side of the trottoir, or footpath. Aqueducts, formed by the junction of three boards, of four bricks,

or of hollow tiles placed upon flat ones, afford abundant outlets to the water. On many roads, the footpaths are only made successively, by means of the dust and mud scraped from the road: but care is always taken to leave room for them in chalking out the plan of the road.

Those roads which in France are called *Vicinales*, are repaired after the same manner. Their breadth rarely exceeds five metres. The means of repair are furnished, as in France, by what is legally called *Prestation en Nature*, unless the importance of the road, or the want of resources to contribute to its formation or its support, does not render the establishment of a toll necessary, which is never refused by Parliament when the reasonableness of such toll shall have been made apparent by inquiry.

The talent of professional engineers is rendered of little use, owing to the simplicity of the mode employed in the making of roads. It is almost a matter of routine. Each parish finds, in the disinterested zeal of some of its

inhabitants, all the knowledge and practice required in this branch of its administration. Bridges of brick are usually built by the mason of the village. On the turnpike-roads, members of the company by whom the road is farmed, or of the committee of the county, are charged with the direction of the works. Engineers are rarely called in, unless to build bridges over large rivers or over canals. The direction of the English roads is carefully indicated by the aid of finger-posts, placed wherever there are branch or cross-communications. Other finger-posts, placed at the boundaries of villages, enable the traveller to ascertain their respective names. The distances are marked by mile-stones. Within ten miles of London, the roads are watered, during the summer, at the expense of companies to whom the undertaking belongs. This inconvenient practice is pushed to such extremes as to produce a liquid mud in the streets of London, even in the hottest weather. The object is less the comfort of the traveller, than the preservation of the road.

Macadamization has been very generally substituted in the streets of London, and in those of most towns, in lieu of the old pavement. The result has been a remarkable economy, a better adaptation for travelling, a great reduction in the repairs of carriages, and an increase in the duration of the labour of horses. This system should be unhesitatingly adopted, provided a sufficient quantity of materials, of good quality, can be had at a moderate price. In some of the streets of London, stones drawn from neighbouring quarries are employed. In the greater portion of the other streets, as well as in all the towns where cheap water-carriage is available, the materials are transported from the Scotch coast. Paris, and the towns and roads in the vicinity of the Seine, might, by means of the navigation of this river, procure from the coasts of Cherbourg, granite, the durability of which would amply compensate for the cost of transport.

On comparing the roads of England, without ruts, without holes, without ditches, with the broad and miry sloughs which are conven-

tionally called *roads* in France, one cannot deny the superiority of the one system over the other; but, at the same time, the difficulty of transporting the English system, and establishing it on similar bases in France, must be admitted. The conditions of locality, of administration, of habits, are too different. One might, however, say to the French Government, "Send your engineers to England, let them study what is done there. If the systems they observe cannot be adopted as a whole, at least many of the details are susceptible of beneficial application. The roads are better in England, therefore the means resorted to for making them are preferable to those employed in France. They present facilities for all kinds of transport, in which those of France are wanting. Borrow, therefore, what is good in the English system. Do not hastily adopt innovations, but do not entirely set your face against them. Try the system partially, render the application of it more general, when its advantages shall be clearly demonstrated. Set out with this

principle, that the mode of making and repairing the roads in France is evidently bad, since it produces such bad results. Ameliorate with prudence, but do not reject ameliorations.

CANALS.

England is completely intersected by water communications. Some of these are destined to carry on the trade of the capital with the commercial and manufacturing towns, others to communicate from one country to another. To these vast ramifications numerous smaller canals are attached. These latter serve for the transport of the produce of coal-mines or manufactories, or for local wants; they are always proportioned to the exigency for which they have been created. When the boats which ply on them reach the larger canals or rivers, they are chained together, and arrive thus at their destination without the necessity of transhipments, which would occasion expense, a great loss of time, and the deterioration of the merchandise.

Nothing is simpler or more economical than the mode adopted for the construction of

canals. In order to avoid the risking of considerable sums on enterprises the result of which would be uncertain, a provisional character is given to the work. Narrow dimensions, sluices, and bridges of wood, the substitution of inclined planes for sluices, the interruption even of the canal itself, and the adoption of land-carriage when serious difficulties intervene, which could not be overcome without heavy expense,—these are the expedients adopted in England, expedients which would be utterly rejected in a country like France, where nothing is admitted which has not a durable and monumental character. This will explain the multiplicity of this kind of enterprises in one country, and their extreme rarity in the other.

Thanks to this wise system of proceeding, public prosperity, in England, spreads and penetrates everywhere by the aid of channels which she knows how to open, without display, without ostentation, almost without attracting notice. All this is achieved by a combination

of private interests, that powerful engine which is employed as a balance to weigh the considerations for and against the realization of the project, and, at the same time, as a lever to remove the obstacles which would oppose its completion.

RAILWAYS.

Those iron roads called railways have become useful auxiliaries to canals. Perhaps indeed they may be substituted, in a great number of localities, for the latter, over which they present, in some respects, a marked advantage. The expense of making them is less considerable; they are less prejudicial to the property they traverse; they require less incidental labour or repair; they are not affected by the drought which dries up the waters of canals, nor the frost which impedes their navigation. By means of the application of steam to wheel machinery, heavier burdens may thus be more rapidly transported. All circumstances are in favour of railways, in a country

in which iron and coal are cheap, and it is presumable they will prevail, at least in the projected communications.

The most important work of this kind is the railway between Manchester and Liverpool. The cutting through of mountains, the raising of enormous embankments upon valleys, the construction of a road over canals and bridges, thus presenting the phenomena of three modes of transport achieved by different principles,—such are the prodigies effected by this recent railway, on which you travel a distance of thirty-two miles (twelve leagues and a half) in eighty minutes. The success which it has obtained cannot fail to give rise to other railways in many localities, and above all in the environs of London, where celerity of communication is deemed of such importance.

THE THAMES TUNNEL.

Among the works of an extraordinary character, that which has for its object to connect the opposite banks of the Thames, by means of a vaulted tunnel dug under the bed of the

river, deserves particular notice. A French engineer conceived and attempted this enterprise, and thanks to the efforts of a genius no less ardent than fruitful in resources, and superior to the obstacles which presented themselves at every step of a soil of capricious variety, which it was impossible to have foreseen, Mr. Brunel has executed the half of his daring plan. The whole would, by this time, have been completed, had not the discouraged shareholders refused the requisite pecuniary advances.

As a monument of art, as well as for the interests of two populous quarters of London, this prodigious undertaking should be carried on, in which the greatest difficulties have been surmounted, and the success of which is placed beyond all doubt.

SUSPENSION-BRIDGES.

If suspension-bridges are not so numerous in England as in France, it is because they are made in the former country with too much perfection and expense. They are found too dear for works of a limited duration, and stone or

brick bridges are very properly preferred to them. The price of these does not much exceed the cost of suspension-bridges, as built in England. These latter are therefore only employed in localities where it would be impossible to construct any other bridge. Such is the Menai bridge, which traversing an arm of the sea of three or four hundred metres in breadth, unites the Island of Anglesea to the Welsh mainland. The largest vessels pass with all their masts under the Menai bridge. Such too will be the bridge about to be constructed by Mr. Brunet, near Bristol, from the rocks of Clifton to the hills which bound the left bank of the Avon. The elevation of this bridge above the river will exceed that of the towers of Westminster. On attentively considering the Hammersmith suspension-bridge, and calculating the sums which it has cost, one can account for the reluctance of the English to the system of suspension-bridges. With the exceptions resulting from its convenience to certain localities, this system should only be employed when, as in France, powerful econo-

mical considerations counterbalance those inconveniences which attend it.

However minute the details which have been dwelt upon, they fail to convey even a remote idea of the means employed, in England, for the purpose of creating the different species of communications which exist in that country. This notice can only explain to the reader, that, in these matters, much more is accomplished in England, and, with greater economy and effect, than in any other part of the world. The reason is, that private interest alone decides on the utility of the different speculations, and on the means necessary to ensure success. The study of these means is of high importance to all those who are destined to direct any branch of public economy. Such study cannot be too much recommended to the administrators and engineers of France. It would convey to the former useful notions as to the manner of conciliating general and private interests, and the latter might learn to abate the extravagance of their projects, and to guard against inordinate expense in the execution of

the works confided to them. Both would convince themselves by a comparison of what is done in England, with what is extravagantly projected, without being executed, in France, that it is better to have a narrow and well repaired road laid down in the soil, than a larger and more imposing one upon paper; a quickly-built wooden bridge, than a stone one, of which many generations will not see the completion; a canal of small dimensions, opened as soon as its utility shall be acknowledged, than an artificial river whose bed is dug, in France, before the projector has ascertained where he can find water to fill it; in a word, that it is necessary to devote as small a capital as possible to the erection of public works, and to refuse nothing that is needful to the perfection of the undertaking.

A VISIT TO ABBOTSFORD.

WHILST Sir Walter Scott affected to set a great value upon a state of comparative obscurity, he has succeeded in obtaining imperishable renown, and in turning it to advantage in his lifetime. I do not make this a ground of reproach to him, for never was celebrity established upon a more honourable basis, springing as it did from the most exalted talent and virtues of the highest order. I but state a fact which may be interesting to those to whom the smallest trait concerning men of genius is a matter of lively interest. Sir Walter Scott was of the number. In attracting, however, the public attention, he did not confine himself to the publication of novels, which

are everywhere read and admired; he sought to stimulate the public curiosity by carefully concealing his name, and leaving to the eager curiosity of his readers the task of discovering it. That name was found to belong to an honourable Scotchman, of a cold demeanour, and of staid and sober features, the plainness of which was well calculated to put to rout all the speculations of the physiognomists, who were prepared to find reflected in the countenance of the author of such lively and varied productions, all that keenness of expression which would have revealed the impenetrable mystery attached to him. It was not the penetration of the public that eventually discovered the author's name; feeling as much wearied at the fruitlessness of their search as they were at their disappointment, he at length disclosed himself.

Sir Walter Scott had laid aside his literary vizor many years before my visit to Edinburgh. He resided, at the latter period, at Abbotsford, a country seat about thirty-six miles distant from the capital. Having been informed of the anxious desire I had often

expressed to make the Baronet's acquaintance, he was good enough to address me a polite invitation to come and visit him. M—— de B—— accompanied me. The road to Abbotsford, which it took us seven hours to reach, passes through a mountainous country wholly devoid of picturesque appearance; cultivated, it is true, but yet without habitations. This road lies at the foot of a valley of monotonous aspect. Within four miles of Abbotsford, Melrose is visible: it is a small town washed by a river, the stream of which is rendered available for manufacturing purposes. Two miles farther on, you cross the Tweed, and arrive by a rapid descent at a *chateau* of Gothic architecture situated at the foot of a high hill. Recent plantations increase the beauty of an extensive park. On the opposite side, the view, somewhat impeded by mountains, looks on a *prairie*, at the extremity of which flows the Tweed, her tranquil waters embellishing without animating the landscape.

It is from the court-yard alone that one has a full view of Abbotsford, and can form an

idea of the *bizarrerie* of its architecture. Sir Walter Scott, who has drawn on the middle ages for his subjects as well as his characters, seems also to have recurred to that epoch for the style of an architecture which he has adopted with all its originality, and with all its faults, even to its minutest absurdities. That irregularity which is the reproach of the chateaus of the eleventh century, exists at Abbotsford in a most remarkable degree. The architect must have combined many odd whims of fancy or memory to vary as he has done the form and the dimensions of the windows, and to load many parts of the façades of the building with the most incongruous ornaments, in order to render the whole a unique specimen of the confusion of all order.

A peristyle attached to the house conducts you to a large room, in which are ranged arms and armoury of all ages and countries, as well as other varied objects of curiosity. To the left is a narrow hall, whence you pass into the dining-room, which communicates with the drawing-room. At the end of the drawing-room is an

apartment of spacious dimensions, appropriated to a library, filled with rare and choice works tastefully bound in the gothic style. At one end of the library is a door, which communicates with Sir Walter's study. A dark narrow staircase, with high steps, leads you to the first story, on which are many small rooms; you are conducted to them by a narrow corridor, in which two persons cannot walk abreast.

The furniture of this singular mansion is in perfect keeping with its architecture. The greater part is of historical origin; and the original destination of many articles is marked on brass plates, which have been engraved for the purpose. In order to form a correct idea of the richness and variety of this collection, it should be known that all men of rank and fortune in the three kingdoms contributed to furnish the house with many curious articles in their possession; and that Abbotsford has thus become a sort of museum, uniting in itself all that the country in which the feudal system has prevailed the longest, could supply of most value in that character.

As we were about to alight from our carriage, we saw approaching us as quickly as a halt would permit him, a gentleman, supporting himself on a cane, apparently from fifty-five to sixty years of age; thick set, of middle stature, of a pleasing rather than expressive countenance. Some grey hairs mingled with the fold of perfectly white locks which fell carelessly on his shoulders. His eyes were blue, small, and apparently without expression. His nose was deeply and thickly set, and his cheeks full and fleshy! There was altogether a sickly air about his person, but particularly in the expression of his head. At any other place than Abbotsford, we could never have suspected him to be the man, the fame of whose celebrity was spread over the literary world. Such was Sir Walter Scott.

He received us with unostentatious hospitality, was penurious in words, but prodigal in kindness. In a few moments we were welcomed, lodged, and made acquainted with the customs of the house. Our host excused himself for his inability to converse with us in

French, which he understood, but could not speak. Our superficial knowledge of the English language made us regret exceedingly this circumstance; which, in a measure, prevented us from judging, as we ought, a mind which we came purposely to study.

We entered the drawing-room, preceded by two immense greyhounds and two Scotch terriers, the constant companions of the Baronet. We were presented to Miss Scott, then to three or four neighbours, and lastly to some members of the family, who, together, composed the party then staying at Abbotsford. At this interview Miss Scott, who, though her mother was a Frenchwoman, does not speak our language, evinced no inclination to contribute, even in her own, to a conversation which her father strove to keep up by common-place remarks. After a little we broke ground on a subject which we conceived most likely to be agreeable to our host, by rendering the homage of our praise to his varied works, and by leading the conversation to those particular productions of his pen which are connected with the

history and romance of the middle ages. Our efforts were vain. The remarks which we made could not animate our host; and the brevity of his replies caused the conversation to flag.

Sir Walter conducted us to the apartments destined for our use. I sat down in an arm-chair embroidered by Mary Stuart, opposite a portrait of Henry Darnley; on a table which had belonged to the Earl of Essex, was placed a small mirror which had reflected the features of Anne Boleyn. This furniture recalled ideas to my mind which I in vain tried to suppress. Proscribed, and under sentence of an inexorable tribunal, at the very moment I was looking at these objects, it is not wonderful that a certain similitude of misfortune should have visibly affected me. Nothing contributes more than exile to the developement of sentiments of pity and sympathy.

On entering the drawing-room, I found Miss Scott in a most elegant dress, which appeared to have exercised a very favourable influence on her manners towards the company. From that moment her deportment was graceful in

the highest degree. She is remarkably handsome, though she had not made that impression upon us in the morning, owing to the pelisse in which she was wrapped up, and the large straw bonnet which concealed her well-formed features and her animated black eyes.

The dinner was served upon silver in the English style. When the cloth was removed, the ladies retired. The gentlemen remained a full hour later, but the conversation produced no brilliant sally on the part of our host.

On our return to the drawing-room, we found the library door thrown open, which, aided by the lights suspended from the ceiling, enabled us to judge of the extent and fine proportions of this apartment. M. de B—— sat himself down in the library with Sir Walter, whom he was desirous of bringing to the topic of politics, on which in Scotland he was, as well as in literature, a high authority. During the conversation, which was long, and carried on in the language of the respective speakers, I was engaged with Miss Scott and the persons who surrounded her. In spite of, perhaps because

of, the difficulty we found in the interchange of our ideas, midnight had arrived before we perceived its approach.

I was up at eight o'clock the next morning, and was taking a survey of the grounds. Sir Walter joined me; gave me, with the utmost complaisance, all the explanations which I desired, and proposed that we should take a detailed view of his library. It was in this conversation that I was enabled to judge of the character of his mind, and satisfied myself that his imagination could not completely shine forth without the aid of his pen. Sparing of observations, he doled out his words succinctly, and in a homely fashion. He seemed generally to want those extensive views which I had supposed him to possess. The observer who had so happily seized the characters of Louis the Eleventh, of Elizabeth, of Mary Stuart, of James the First, as well as the customs and manners of the principal personages of his novels, appeared to have exhausted all his thoughts in his works, and to have left his memory a complete void.

In a word, the author of Waverley, Quentin Durward, the Antiquary, and so many other productions of distinguished merit, appeared indifferent to the object of upholding by his conversation the idea which his works afforded of the power and versatility of his genius; not that he disdained to expend his erudition or his wit in conversation, but that he seemed to want the faculty or the habit of it. It must be said that he was suffering at this time the first attacks of a disease which, eighteen months afterwards, terminated in his dissolution.

That minute spirit of detail which detracts so much from the merit of his works, was apparent in all that he did or said. If he spoke, he dwelt too much on trifles; and in showing his treasures of art and literature, he left nothing to the imagination of the stranger; every trifle was explained. In the distribution of his chateau, in its careful decoration, this wish to examine and show everything, to find place for everything, even for objects unworthy of the care bestowed or the descriptions lavished upon

them, was evident. It was a necessity of Sir Walter's nature to put forward all that fell to his hand, as well as every idea which passed through his brain. By the side of these trifles, one was often surprised by noble objects, disposed to the best advantage: it is perhaps this very contrast which gives a distinguishing character to Scott's productions. He has written for all classes, for all ages, for all countries, for his publisher, and for himself; he has put into the mouth of the beggar, as well as into that of the king, the very language which both should speak. He has traced out the most remarkable features in the history of France, without being able to speak her language; he has rendered the like service to his own country and to England. For the present generation, content to be amused with all that he has written, as for posterity, which will make its selection amongst them—for both he has laboured: for the one he has composed light and elegant trifles, for the other splendid portraits of manners, characters admirably traced, descriptions full of charming variety. For himself he has also

laboured, since he amassed, by the publication of his works, a fortune of many millions of francs, of which a misplaced confidence deprived him,—and acquired a fame which, so far from having ever been contested, has been raised beyond the limits which the most favourable award should have assigned him: all have benefited by his labours.

The country which produced such a man has reason to be proud of his character and productions. He was the subject of general conversation and of universal curiosity; his portrait or his bust was in every house; his most trifling actions, his most insignificant words, were published with a species of importance. He was sought for, he was visited: his chateau, like Ferney, had become the resort of literary pilgrimages—whether absent or present, he received the homage of all. The most indulgent posterity cannot judge him more favourably than his contemporaries have done. It is but justice to the memory of this eminent man to state, that so much flattery in no degree spoiled the goodness and simplicity of his disposition.

Death has just removed him from the world; and the sentiments he inspired have assumed a tinge of enthusiasm bordering on fanaticism. The honours bestowed upon his memory bear the appearance of worship; the theatres ring with his praise; statues are about to be erected to perpetuate his name. The nation interferes in his domestic affairs, anxious to repair them, and to transmit to his children the inheritance of his fortune, with the same anxiety with which it has immortalized his name; and, unable to do more, it has classed him amongst its most distinguished and celebrated men. A nation undoubtedly confers honour upon itself by such bursts of enthusiasm; but this should be moderated by reflection: it should keep some share of admiration in reserve for celebrities of another stamp and of another epoch, and not allow it to be supposed that genius is so exclusive, and so rarely to be met with, as to call forth, when it appears, those eulogiums which ages may elapse before another character shall be found to claim.

EDINBURGH.

THERE is much to see and to observe in Scotland:—the aspect of the country—the physiognomy of the inhabitants—their manners—their tastes—their affections—their hatreds—which not even a union of nearly three centuries * with England can either change or modify.

It is in the highest degree interesting to study the character of a people who have thus preserved their ancient manners, whilst keeping pace with the rapid advances of civilization: a people who combine a fidelity to the memory

* The Baron here alludes to the Union of the two crowns, and not to the Union of the two countries.

TRANSLATOR.

of their unfortunate kings with perfect submission and loyalty to their present sovereign; and who remain altogether Scotch, whilst they are an integral part of Great Britain.

Scotland presents to the eye of the traveller a widely different aspect from that part of England which borders upon it. The town of Berwick rises in the form of an amphitheatre from the left bank of the Tweed It was formerly protected, and is now commanded, by a castle, the architecture of which belongs to the middle ages. Hills, cultivated to the very summit, succeed to the wooded slopes of Northumberland. Large farms are met with at a great distance from each other, unprotected by any plantation from the damp winds which give a character of monotonous sadness to the country. At still greater intervals are to be seen magnificent chateaus, which, owing to the immense extent of the estates, are less frequently to be met with than in England. On the right, at a short distance from the road, the sea presents at first a boundless aspect, and then appears to force its way through the

northern mountains, which indicate in the distance the opening of the Frith of Forth. As we advance, the sea becomes narrower, and forms, as it were, but an imposing feature in one of the most splendid landscapes in the world. Some small islands of most picturesque aspect, a multitude of ships of all sizes and all forms, are now visible; and on the other side of the Forth may be seen numerous mansions, distinguished by their elegant architecture. Such is the panorama, to which a road, otherwise devoid of interest, serves as a species of gallery.

In the vicinity of Edinburgh, the country becomes richer in trees and foliage, in the midst of which country-seats are seen, of the most exquisite taste. The monuments on the top of Calton Hill announce, at some distance from the city, the approach to Edinburgh. Before entering the town, you perceive the gothic castle which, built on the point of a sharp rock, commands the city and surrounding country. A broad street, intersected at right angles by other streets in perfect keeping

with it, conveys at once the idea of an extensive and a splendid city. Edinburgh is that city.

The aspect of Edinburgh cannot be compared to that of any other city with which I am acquainted. From Princes Street, containing the principal hotels frequented by strangers, one enjoys a prospect of the Old Town, situated on the ridge of a rising ground of moderate elevation. On the right, the eye reposes on a fortification of the twelfth century, from whose summit is enjoyed the only advantage it now offers, a commanding prospect.

On the left it penetrates through a double range of hills, lying inclosed in a valley, at the extremity of which the Stuarts had built a palace, which was to witness the violent deaths of the greater number of their family, and those scenes of grief and trouble which awaited the remainder, and was to become at a later period the asylum of other royal sorrows.

The space which separates the Old from the New Town serves as a site to two churches, built in an elegant Gothic style, and to an edi-

fice of Grecian architecture, in which the Royal Society of Edinburgh holds its sittings.

A large Gothic building—next to it a succession of high towers, rising one above another, and presenting the effect of a single tower;—then a colonnaded peristyle, of extraordinary magnificence—on the side of the hill, a building of Grecian architecture — all these edifices astonish the beholder by the contrast of their forms, the combined and harmonious effect of their masses, the appropriate selection of their sites. The buildings of which I have thus given the outline, are, a prison, a monument of Nelson, the commencement of an edifice the proportions of which are on the scale of those of the Parthenon, and, lastly, a school. On a terrace, from which the eye commands a full view of the picture, a range of handsome houses has been built, forming what is called Regent's Terrace.

The New Town, which has been created within the last thirty years, should be visited previously to entering the old town. Its streets, no less remarkable for their length and

breadth than for their architecture, run from east to west along the horizontal ridge of a hill two miles in extent, and are crossed by other streets of less length, but equally broad, which, owing to their slope, are more difficult to the pedestrian, but afford a much finer prospect. The principal street is terminated by a column rising above the handsome trees of an immense square, and by the façade of an elegant church. The other streets are bounded by edifices or vistas, which fix the attention of the stranger. The end of one of these streets discloses the imposing mass of the old castle; another, the bold steeple of a belfry; a third, the fretwork of a Gothic edifice, a view of the bay, or some of the mountains which encircle the city. In a word, the New Town seems to have been built in order to prove what can be effected by a pure taste in architecture, when nature affords a fine site and excellent materials, and man furnishes abundant capital.

You reach the Old Town, either by crossing a bridge thrown over a river, or by a steep descent. This is the town of the Stuarts, with

its narrow streets, its lofty houses, its pointed roofs, and its heavy churches, built in the worst taste. Here and there some small passages have of late been widened, some handsome edifices erected, and some sharp descents rendered less perpendicular; but the character of the Old Town has been judiciously left unchanged.

In all respects but its unparalleled site, it resembles most of the cities of the tenth or twelfth century. At this remote epoch, it was the custom to build towns, without order or symmetry, on the sides of hills commanded by a rock, the summit of which was calculated for the erection of massy walls and bulwarks, of a castle, in short, well adapted to the unrefined taste of that period, and to resist all attack. Under the protection of such a fortress, a town will have arisen, the circuit of which, undulating with the inequality of the soil, connected itself with the system of defence of the castle. Here, in the midst of those agitations created by the state of uncertainty in which a rising society found itself, shelter will have been

afforded to an alternately warlike, commercial, and civilized people.

Edinburgh possesses a school of medicine and many hospitals. For six days in the week, the town presents the spectacle of an active and industrious people occupied in the ardent pursuit of commerce and manufactures, and exhibits a more bustling aspect than most of the English towns, owing to the more numerous population contained within a smaller space. On the Sunday, however, the scene suddenly changes. Puritanism then exercises all its rigour and austerity, and reigns despotic. The streets are quite deserted by the inhabitants; and if one meets a few solitary passengers, they are sure to be strangers, astonished, as it were, to find themselves alone in a great capital, in the streets of which they could hardly force a passage the evening before, owing to the dense crowd passing to and fro in every direction.

On the first sound of the church bell, which ushers in the Sabbath, long files of devout Christians proceed solemnly along the streets

on their way to church. All appears silent as the grave when this noiseless movement ceases; nor is the stillness of the scene interrupted till the conclusion of divine service enables the crowd to return home. They meet again in the evening to listen to endless sermons, that supply the place of the profane amusements in which other countries, less rigid in their religious feelings, are wont to indulge. No one drives to church; and the only vehicles met with, are some of the public mails, or private carriages, the owners of which hope to escape, by driving into the country, the *ennui* which could not fail to await them in town.

Religion in Scotland forbids every thought, and the law every act, which have not God for their object. For twenty-four hours, one is not permitted to do more than pray or meditate, with folded arms, in an attitude of devotion. The most innocent games and recreations—even music is forbidden, and one must only speak of matters relating to religion or divine worship.

Edinburgh, like the greater part of English towns, has no public promenades; but the flags of its large and open streets, and the mountains in its vicinity, in a great measure supply the want.

The great desideratum in Scotland is a milder climate, which would permit one to enjoy the varied aspect of that beautiful country. "Does it always rain in Scotland?" was our question to Sir Walter Scott. "Not always," he replied; "it occasionally snows." This joke is not altogether devoid of truth. The atmosphere is humid, foggy, and charged with violent winds. In summer alone can one rely on many days of fine weather; and therefore it is that those excursions into the Highlands, to which the beauties of the site, with its romantic scenery, invite the traveller, can seldom terminate without some degree of disappointment, unless they be undertaken between intervals of rain, when you still are in fear of a return of unfavourable weather. Summer is the only season which admits of an exception to this rule.

HOLYROOD.

DURING the period of my sojourn at Edinburgh, Charles X. and his august and unfortunate family resided at Holyrood. It was a sentiment of duty, of gratitude, and affection, which called me to their abode. I had served the Bourbons all my life; they had been always kind to me and mine. They desired the happiness of their country; and they had succeeded in procuring it. They would have fixed that happiness upon a firm basis, if the spirit of faction had not impeded them. I owed them every respect and attachment, and came to acquit myself of these duties.

The palace of Holyrood, which the King inhabited, is composed of a façade terminated

at either end by a species of wing or pavilion, flanked by small towers. To this pavilion are joined the wings of a modern building. The square court formed by this disposition of the building is surrounded by arcades, resembling the cloisters of ancient monasteries. The principal building and the two wings, built long after the façade, which appertained to the palace of the Scotch kings, are of an extremely simple architecture. To the left, as you enter, is the apartment formerly occupied by Mary Stuart. The furniture remains in the same condition in which it existed during the life-time of this princess; and is indeed carefully preserved. The portraits of Rizzio, placed in the most conspicuous parts of the wainscot, and over the chimney of the oratory, attest the undisguised openness of the princess's affections. The cicerone of the palace was very anxious to make me perceive on the flooring the blood of the Italian who fell under the daggers of his assassins; but, whether owing to the darkness of the place, or to my incredulity, I must freely confess I saw no trace of blood, though I was

guilty of the perhaps pardonable politeness of saying that I perceived it. This is a species of complaisance which is pleasing to Scotchmen, and which a well-bred man should not refuse.

The approach to Holyrood is through numerous small and filthy streets, or rather lanes, occupied by the lowest and most wretched class of the population. The palace is in one of those valleys which intersect Edinburgh; and it would appear as if the palace itself had been destined for the reception of illustrious exiles, with whose misfortunes it was intended to be in keeping, for nothing can be more gloomy than its position, between two mountains of the most sombre aspect, which offered to its inmates no other vista than the skies, every earthly prospect being shut out from view. The internal distribution of the palace presents a suite of immense apartments, the walls of which are imperfectly concealed by ancient tapestry. Antique chairs, gothic sofas, the dilapidated state of which was disguised by Indian calico, beds with serge curtains, and a billiard-table;—these composed the whole of the fur-

niture. The reception given to the descendants of Louis the Fourteenth, in this habitation of the Stuarts, could not fail to prove to them that Holyrood had changed hands. It seemed as if, implacable in her recollections of the past, the usurpation which had deprived the Stuarts of their rights, designed to call to the bar of its tribunal a family of Kings fugitive in its turn, and to arraign the generous hospitality which, in the days of its power, it had bestowed upon another royal family, whose fate afforded matter for such painful comparisons.

At St. Germain, the sovereign of the palace descended the staircase to receive at the door the wandering English monarch; but at Holyrood the exiled French monarch was not soothed by the like consolation. At Holyrood, instead of a powerful sovereign, a hall-porter with a bunch of keys in his hand did the honours, and opened the doors of apartments cold, cheerless, and desolate. In place of a strong box filled with gold, for the use of the

exiled monarch's privy-purse, there lay on the table certain filthy papers hardly legible; writs of capias, and writs of seizure of effects, were the consolations which met the eye of the exiled monarch in a foreign land. The brutal indifference of the nineteenth century was substituted for the delicate and sumptuous courtesy of the seventeenth; in fine, a constitutional King of England was the host, instead of an absolute Monarch of France; William the Fourth instead of Louis the Fourteenth. I shall avoid mixing up with details calculated only to gratify an idle curiosity, other recitals of a graver character, and replete with instruction, which are exclusively the province of history. I will not describe those scenes of sorrow when three generations of kings opposed, to the assaults of misfortune, a calm dignity, unembittered remembrances of past grandeur and hopes, with which no feelings of resentment were mingled. I will not paint the suffering virtue of him from whose mouth no word of hatred or revenge has ever fallen, and who has never ex-

pressed a wish which had not for its object the happiness of France; neither will I relate how, as in the days of their power and prosperity, distress was no sooner known than relieved: every other habit of the Tuileries had been laid aside; this alone was preserved. The playful innocence, the graceful deportment, the precocious talents of a child, threw even a charm over the sadness of the meetings at Holyrood. Happiness in the choice of words carelessly scattered here and there during the progress of his amusements, sallies of wit announcing not only a lively imagination but a judgment already formed, an elevated mind, called up the expression of real pleasure in countenances to whose features an expression of grief had become familiar.

The good-nature of the Duke de Bordeaux is apparent in those frequent acts of munificence and charity which the sight of misfortune never fails to elicit. His memory is not only retentive but well stored. He speaks with equal fluency the French, German, Italian, and English languages. Gymnastic exercises, to

which he had been early accustomed, tended to develope in him a dexterity and elegance of manners which distinguish his deportment and all his movements, and could not fail to attract notice, were he not already, by his birth and premature importance, an object of general and undisguised interest.

The following anecdotes will give an idea of his elevated mind, and the readiness and tact of his sallies. When the exiled family was about to quit Lulworth Castle, where they had taken up their temporary abode on their first arrival, in order to repair to Edinburgh, his sister, who, it had been arranged, should proceed by way of London, entertained her brother with the pleasure she should have in visiting the capital. "What will you see," said the young princess, "that can possibly interest you in a sea voyage?" "The Coast of France," was his reply. And the ill-concealed tears started into his eye, and drew corresponding tears from all who heard a reply, inspired by so affecting a sentiment, expressed with such dignified simplicity.

On my departure from London for Edinburgh, Madame, Duchess of Berri, begged of me to convey to her son a dog of which he was extremely fond, and the loss of which, in consequence of the events of July, had caused him inexpressible grief. The unexpected recovery of the dog, of which he had given up all hope, might be supposed to have left the young prince little leisure to attend to a visit of pure etiquette; such, however, was not the case. The caresses of poor *Zami*, her evident delight at again seeing her master, did not interfere for a moment with that dignity with which he deemed it becoming to receive me.

I shortened a visit which the prince might find too long, but I had an opportunity of judging, from the adjoining apartment where I remained for a few moments, what resolution the royal child must have displayed, when he could thus check, in my presence, the expression of those bursts of joy, to which he now gave free vent, in caressing his favourite dog so unexpectedly restored to him.

The archers of Edinburgh wished the young

prince to assist at their sports. One of their body asked me to inform him, whether the duke would do them the honour to accept their invitation. The answer in the affirmative, which I was directed to return, caused preparations to be made for the prince's reception.

On the day appointed, the prince found the company in full costume, with a bow, arrows, gloves, and every thing necessary for the sport, in readiness for him.

His first attempts in archery were not successful. His impatience was about to spoil his sport: when recalled to his self-possession by a few words whispered to him by his under governor, he requested the captain of the company to show him the manner of taking aim; he drew his bow and reached the mark. On a second attempt, he proved equally successful; and he would have ventured a third time, had he not been advised not to compromise the reputation he had just acquired.

"Sir," said the duke to the captain, "your company is full, I suppose?"

"No, Monseigneur," replied the captain.

"Will you admit another archer," said the duke? "Will you have me?"

"We should be too highly honoured," said the captain.

"Where is your muster-roll?" said the prince, "I wish to inscribe my name!" and on the moment, the muster-roll was honoured with the name of a Bourbon.

A few days afterwards, the archers presented to the prince a complete uniform of their company.

The Duke of Bordeaux exhibits a marked predilection for every thing that relates to military science, a predilection that would, no doubt, materially interfere with his other studies, if care were not taken to control and regulate it.

The best encouragement that can be held out to him, is the promise of allowing him to witness military evolutions. One day, when attending a review, he was struck with the martial air which a pair of huge mustachios gave to one of the officers.

"How fine these mustachios look!" said

he; "would that mine were already grown!" At this moment, his eye directed itself to the seamed and war-worn countenance of one of his suite, who had a slash on his cheek. "There is," said he, "something better still than mustachios—an honourable scar, like that which distinguishes Lavillate. Let but the occasion arise and I will do my best to be like him;" so saying, he threw himself into the arms of the officer, and embraced with enthusiasm the proud record of his bravery.

These anecdotes, selected from a countless number, afford sufficient indications of the generous and dignified sentiments which adorn this youthful prince, and are a presage of what we may expect from an education directed upon the soundest principles, and pursued in the school of misfortune.

The noble character of the Scotch exhibited itself in the conduct of the inhabitants of Edinburgh towards the royal family of France. If our princes were unsparing of acts of bounty, the generous people who profited by them were not slow in testifying their gratitude.

Wherever the King went, the most profound respect was manifested towards him by persons of every shade of political opinion. The lower classes of society, to whose necessities the purse of Charles X. was always open, exhibited not only a sentiment of respect, but of affection to their generous benefactor. May we not trace in those points of resemblance (of which the Scotch have, perhaps, an instinctive rather than a settled idea) that are found to exist between the misfortunes of a royal family still vivid in their recollections, and the more recent sorrows of another, the origin of the species of veneration which they evinced towards the royal exiles, when they came to seek, in the palace of the Stuarts, that asylum denied them in the land on which they had conferred every blessing during a sway of eight centuries? However overwhelming their adversity, however signal their bounties, was it possible that respect and gratitude could, in the short space of two years, cause an attachment so powerful as to give to separation the character of public calamity, felt alike by men of all parties and of

all religious beliefs? Assuredly not. The homage paid to the exiled Bourbons must have had a retrospect to the unfortunate Stuart family.

General sorrow, I may say desolation, was manifested throughout the town, when it was known that the King had determined to quit Edinburgh. The most lively regrets were expressed by the magistrates, the corporations, and all who had an opportunity of approaching the person of his Majesty.

The day of departure was a memorable one. The whole population lined the road from Holyrood to Leith, where the embarkation was to take place. The streets, the windows, nay, even the tops of the houses, from whence a last farewell could be taken of the illustrious exiles, were filled with spectators of the affecting scene.

As propriety did not admit of those popular demonstrations which are only exhibited towards native sovereigns, the people of Scotland supplied the place of these affectionate testimonies by a more touching mark of delicacy. It

was arranged that each person in the vast crowd should wave, in silence, either a white handkerchief or riband, as the *cortège* should pass along. By so doing, the people presented to the royal view a colour which recalled the recollection of more prosperous times. A generous flattery dispelled, for a moment at least, from a heart in which grief had taken up her abode, those sensations consequent upon existing misfortune, and threw over the past a consoling remembrance, which would afford a resting-place to hope, whenever it should have to recall the days of past sorrow and regret.

SCOTCH SOCIETY.

ALL that hospitality presents as most attractive to a stranger—all that knowledge offers as most varied, are found combined in the society of Edinburgh. In no city in Europe does he find a greater anxiety displayed to win his good opinion. These dispositions appear inspired by the desire to set off to advantage a land cherished by the natives with an attachment bordering upon worship.

The Scotch have considerable pretensions to science, and to a certain degree of perfection in the arts. Each individual seeks to excel in some particular branch; from this desire results a more general education than exists elsewhere, and a necessity of displaying it. This, which at

the first blush might appear a questionable merit, is, in truth, a real advantage.

The Scotch ladies exhibit a laudable desire to please, and the greater part of them attain their object. Tall, of fair complexion, and fairer skin, they are in general rather handsome than pretty. They atone for that delicacy of feature which nature sometimes denies them, by their gifted minds and graceful manners. One can hardly remain, for a few moments, in the society of a Scotch lady, without being convinced that they succeed in the most important object of woman's life — in the talent of pleasing. Their beauty is resplendent at a ball; their wit imparts to their conversation an uncommon interest; in point of education, and in their system of domestic economy, they do not differ from Englishwomen.

Scotchmen are serious yet urbane in their manners; their politeness is more pliant than that of their English neighbours, and adapts itself more readily to continental forms. They possess in the highest degree an expression indicative of readiness to oblige, a cha-

racter of hospitality and benevolence, which are never belied when their sincerity is put to the test.

They are in general of high stature, and have paid homage to that physical quality, by creating a club in the capital, under the name of the Six Feet Club. To be six feet in height is an indispensable condition of admittance. Without the adventitious aid of such a stature, the bravest soldier, the most distinguished writer, could not obtain admission. Wallace himself, if he returned to earth with the short stature accorded to him by history—Sir Walter Scott, who, without being a short man, was not of the required height—would both necessarily have been rejected.

NATIONAL CHARACTER.

THE affection of Scotland for the last members of the House of Stuart was a sentiment long preserved in the national breast. This affection was fostered by the attempts of that unfortunate family to recover the throne, and by the very measures so energetically adopted to repress it. Even now they cherish a tender and religious sentiment for the memory of the Stuarts; a sentiment which, perhaps, throws an air of coldness over their feelings towards a sovereign imposed upon them rather by victory than by their free choice. Incorporated with Great Britain, they still remain Scotch; and participating in the general interests of England, they nevertheless

keep always a steady eye on those particular considerations which have for object their native land.

Their aristocracy still reside, and maintain their influence, amongst them. Their religion differing too from that of England in some of its doctrines, is rendered still more dissimilar by the rigidity of its practice. And though the language spoken by the better classes is common to both countries, still the pronunciation of the Scotch is distinguished by an accent which is readily apparent in the first words spoken by one of that nation.

Several Scotch regiments have retained, in their uniform, many striking parts of their national costume, as if they designed to protest against the conquest of their country, by refusing to amalgamate their costumes and their manners with those of their conquerors.

MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS.

THE Scotch have a national music, of which they are exceedingly proud. This claim is founded on the existence of certain national ballads, of a simple and drawling melody, of a melancholy turn, little varied in its expression or elaborated in the composition, but not wholly devoid of a pleasing effect.

Their musical system was evidently adopted in the very infancy of the art, and has preserved its original defects. It recalls those by-gone times when Ossian and the Scottish bards attuned their poems to music. It may safely be averred that many of the most celebrated Scotch ballads were composed by these early bards: the airs are even now calculated

to excite their enthusiasm. I draw from this a conclusion more favourable to the national character than to the musical taste of the Scotch. A spirit of nationality could alone, in fact, account for the enthusiasm felt by a whole nation for compositions, the chief and perhaps the only merit of which consists in their early origin.

In the Scotch regiments, the drum, and other instruments give way to the bagpipe, their national and favourite instrument. Its harsh sounds seem calculated neither to soothe the ear, nor to excite the valour of the soldier. Independently of this, the bagpipe appears an instrument little calculated to convey to any distance, or to a large assemblage of men, the commands which it is usual to transmit by means of the trumpet and the drum; but the Scotch remember that the sounds of this instrument challenged to victory the clans of Wallace, the armies of Robert Bruce, and, in no less a degree, the Highland regiments of our own time.

The Highlanders have preserved the costume of their forefathers, in defiance of its unsuitableness for the climate of their country. This costume consists of a bonnet, which covers only the top of the head; a piece of square plaid, intended to support a cloak thrown over the shoulders in a manner far more picturesque than convenient; a lower garment, somewhat in the shape of a petticoat, called a kilt, and which, leaving uncovered a part of the thigh and leg, presents a feeble barrier against the habitual coldness of the atmosphere. Nothing displays in a more remarkable manner the attachment of the Scotch to their national customs than their perseverance in this costume, as well as in the use of inconvenient and short stockings, despite their manifest singularity and disadvantages.

The singular union of English jackets, and a shako with black feathers, complete the dress of the Scotch soldier. The cross-barred stockings of the Highlander, fastened by a red garter, and his shoe covered with a large brass buckle, must prove highly incommodious, and

form a revolting contrast with the dress of every civilized army in Europe, in which such severe regulations have, of late, been adopted.

It may be concluded, from this obstinate adherence to a dress neither in harmony with the age, the personal comfort of the wearer, the customs of other countries, nor even with the existing state of Scotch civilization, that this people wish to retain the customs imprinted on their character by the seal of centuries, that they wish to protest against those changes which have been forced upon them, and those with which they now consider themselves threatened, and that they prefer their nationality, though attended with so many inconveniencies, to changes for which they are not desirous to pay the price of an abandonment of their cherished traditions; even though such traditions and customs may contrast with what prevails in every other country, and with their own manifest progress in the path of civilization.

SCOTCH CONSTITUTION.

THE Scotch, on becoming united to England, preserved the laws which regulated their system of property, as well as some parts of their ancient constitution. The territorial divisions of Scotland, her judicial and administrative forms, have remained unchanged.

The Scotch parliament has been united to that of England; the members they send to the House of Commons are chosen in the same manner as in the latter kingdom. The sixteen Peers deputed by Scotland to the upper House, are chosen by the other peers, and for the whole duration of Parliament.

SCOTCH CLERGY.

THE constitution of the Scotch clergy is altogether different from that of the English church. They approximate more to Luther in their religious tenets, which exhibit a severity of principles most vexatious and irksome in the practice. Along with the dogma of puritanism, the Scotch religion has adopted the spirit of dark intolerance peculiar to that sect: it rejects episcopacy; and unlike the clergy of the English church, its ministers collect no tithes for their support.

HIGHLANDS.

He who loves the aspect of a country which partakes of the natural and the grand, he who is pleased with manners which savour of mountain originality, cannot fail to be charmed with a visit to the Highlands.

However mountainous the country may be, however decorated by beautiful lakes, Scotland has no kind of resemblance to Switzerland, to which country it is habitually compared. It possesses not those bold forelands, those imposing rocks, those detached masses, that spread of green sward, those handsome forests, which constitute the charm of Helvetia. Scotland, moreover, is deficient in that cultivation, in that feature of comparative wealth and

civilization, which are among the admired advantages of happy Switzerland. The disposition, too, of the lakes is different. It rarely happens that the border of the landscape is cut out in the same fashion as in Switzerland; and the conformation of the mountains of the two countries differ in as remarkable a degree. In Scotland, the sides of the mountains resemble inclined planes reaching to the verge of calm and transparent waters. Cows, flocks of sheep, and stags, feed in the midst of small underwoods, while in the distance one sees, here and there, thinly scattered trees. Occasionally, fields, inclosed with hedges, yield a miserable crop of rye or oats, of which the inhabitants make an indifferent bread. In more attractive views, the eye now and then reposes on the prospect of shooting-boxes, and of distant mansions, rarely to be met with, owing to the inconceivable extent of the estates: a principal mansion on each estate, and a few shooting-boxes, resorted to by the owners and their friends during the summer months, do not exist in sufficient number to give the country an air of comfort and

activity. Scotland presents, accordingly, a rugged and barren appearance, which fills the mind with melancholy.

There are, however, some exceptions to the exclusive possession of the soil by its titular lords. Comfortable and even elegant houses are often seen, which do not belong to the higher aristocracy. The descendants of the chiefs of ancient clans still retain possession of extensive estates. In addition to their character of owners of the soil, they superadd an extensive influence over all those of the clan who bear their name and wear their favourite plaid. These chiefs of clans keep up the hospitality of the olden time, with all its generous confidence and cordial warmth of manner. The introduction to one family of distinction, in Scotland, is sufficient to obtain for the stranger a ready admittance into the best society in the country; and he is received in their circles with a warmth and cordiality which, in other countries, are reserved for relatives, or old and intimate friends. Should the family with whom the guest is staying, make a visiting ex-

cursion, he is taken with them, and presented by some one of the family whose acquaintance he has first made; and his greatest difficulty lies in resisting the good things which the hospitality and custom of the Highlands heap upon him: a hospitality and custom to which a stranger cannot naturalize himself in a short time. There are indeed few strangers of whose social, gastronomic, and drinking powers, the Scotch must not entertain a rather contemptible opinion, looking to their own accomplished feats at the social board.

SPORTING IN THE HIGHLANDS.

I WAS invited to a shooting-party during the grouse season. This grouse is a bird of the partridge species, very common in the Highlands. I set off on a Highland pony, to whose natural sagacity I trusted myself as often as occasion arose, and whose trained experience was sufficient to lead me (failing birds in one quarter) into another, where to find them was almost certain.

Grouse exists in great abundance in Scotland; but it is not permitted, by an ancient usage of the country, to fire twice on the same covey of birds. The necessity of seeking fresh coveys, as well as the heavy nature

of the soil, renders grouse-shooting a very fatiguing pastime.

Stag-hunting offers a pleasure of a different kind. The sportsman sets out accompanied by thirty or forty gamekeepers. It seldom happens that the stag approaches sufficiently near to be within reach of the ball of his pursuers: he almost always gains the ridge of mountains crowned by perpendicular rocks, forming a species of natural wall of four or five feet high. Bounding over these walls, he considers himself safe, and proceeds leisurely to graze. The huntsmen arrive without noise, take their station, and, at a given signal, many of the stags fall victims at the first discharge.

The stag often affords a nobler sport, when hunted by large stag-hounds of a prodigious strength. The dogs in general attempt to seize the stag by the throat or by the ears; but sometimes their force is expended before they can make these attempts: oftener they succeed, and have only to vanquish the obstinate resistance which their antagonist opposes to them.

The Scotch stag is infinitely larger than the stag of the continent; his courage and strength render him, also, much more formidable to his assailants. The number of these animals has so greatly increased, that the mountains belonging to the Duke of Athol are said to contain eight thousand.

MELTON-MOWBRAY.

It is at Melton in Leicestershire, a mountainous and wooded country, intersected by valleys and deep rivers, by brooks, and hedges defended by double ditches, that the best hunting in England is afforded. The country is not remarkable either for the beauty of its sites, or as presenting those enjoyments which a small and anciently-built town, totally deprived of those comforts of which the English show themselves so jealous, is the least calculated to yield. The sportsman, however, accords the preference to Melton, because it unites, and comprises within itself, all that variety of difficulties which a sportsman finds not only a pleasure but a glory in sur-

mounting. It may be also that English foxes —like the amateurs who hunt them—appear to delight in dangers, and congregate in preference round Melton. They are found in the neighbourhood in sufficient quantity to furnish a supply for the considerable destruction which yearly takes place.

There is not a hunt which may not afford food for a fortnight's conversation. The brooks and ditches cleared, the rivers swum over, the broken limbs and ribs, the horses killed—such are the anecdotes which form the inevitable episodes of these charming parties!

Caricature, which seizes on every thing in England, has not neglected so rich a subject; it has contrived to turn to humorous account the often tragical occurrences furnished by such dangerous amusements.

The keeping up of what is called an establishment at Melton, entails a very considerable expense. This species of luxury is necessarily limited to a very small number of wealthy people. No Meltonian can dispense with a dozen horses, each of which costs, at the

least, two or three hundred guineas. Some stables contain even thirty.* The labour of a hunter is not prolonged beyond three or four seasons. From the care bestowed upon them, two horses require the attendance of one groom. This may convey some idea of the enormous expense incidental to this kind of enjoyment.

The intervals between hunting-days are filled up by brilliant assemblages at the country mansions, by play, and by cock-fighting, which serve as pretexts to bets often amounting to a very considerable sum.

Melton is one of the places in the world where one is most careless of one's purse and person, and where the one and the other are sacrificed with the greatest zest.

* Sir Harry Goodricke's contain fifty.—TRANSLATOR.

COCK-FIGHTING.

If the character of nations were to be studied in their popular games, special attention should be bestowed on cock-fighting, which holds a high rank among the amusements to which the people of England are most fondly attached.

In the attention paid to the preservation of the race of these birds, a spirit of order and perseverance is manifested. In the enormous bets to which cock-fighting serves as a pretext, is disclosed the taste for a species of chance, the caprices of which, nevertheless, offer the bases of a sort of calculation. In the courage of the bird, the idea of a resemblance with that of man presents itself; and in the

tragical conclusion of the struggle, the need of an impression lively enough to excite imaginations which a slight movement of curiosity could not agitate. In the enthusiasm of the spectators of all classes to take part for such or such combatant, without any other motive than the idea of the moment and the inspiration of play, a similitude is afforded to that ardour which induces the English to engage themselves, fortune as well as person, in political quarrels with which they have no concern. In a word, in all the details of a frivolous amusement, a sort of summary of their conduct throughout life is manifested.

Celebrated by its fox-hunts, Melton is not less renowned by its cock-fights. In the environs of this town the most celebrated race of birds is bred; and here it is that all schemes are followed which are likely to add to the purity of breed, and to increase, by crossing, the perfection of the cock. It is in the environs of Melton that, from the peer of the three kingdoms, to the farmer, nay, even to the groom, the passion of play confounds all

ranks. Bets are here offered and accepted without examining from whence they come, or into what hands they fall.

People interest themselves no less about the genealogy of a cock than about that of a race-horse. Any coupling of these birds which is calculated to impair the breed, is repudiated with as much horror, as a derogatory marriage in the family of their owners. And in this classic land of social distinctions, aristocracy, with all its pretensions and the rigour of its despotism, condescends to interfere in the manner of breeding fowls.

Thanks to the care taken of the ancestry of the cock—which is traced back through several generations—you are sure that the birds destined to fight have what is called blood, that is to say, that they descend, by an uninterrupted succession of grandsires of noble origin, from a stock capable of furnishing combatants well suited by their courage for the arena in which they exhibit their valour.

Cock-fighting has its laws, as rigorously observed as those which regulated the passes of

a tournament, or as the brutal rules observed in the boxing-matches of London.

The great bets are made on the success of a series of fights between a certain number of cocks. Thus, each better fetches about thirty of these birds, and divides them into three parties. He opposes one of them to the bird presented by his adversary, and the bet is adjudged to the better whose champions have been most frequently conquerors, first in each party, and afterwards in two of the three parties.

Other bets are offered even during the battle, on the chances which it presents; and it is thus that the tact and rapidity of judgment of the betters are called into exercise. A knowing eye conjectures, from the manner in which a cock enters upon and maintains a struggle; from the blows he gives and receives; from the effect produced on his countenance by a wound inflicted on such or such a part of the body, the probable issue of the contest; and from one end to the other of the cockpit, the spectators propose, or, to speak

more properly, cry out bets, which are accepted with the same readiness, the proportions varying according to the opinion which the better entertains of the result.

A circular hall, furnished with steps which enable you to descend into the pit, is filled with spectators. Two men appear, bearing silk bags, on which the escutcheons of their masters are richly embroidered. They draw forth the cocks which are to fight, and place them before a judge, who examines them, and who assures himself, by an inspection of their weight and conformation, whether they are of equal strength. This formality fulfilled, the cocks are returned to the men who have brought them to the pit, and are placed upon the turf which serves as the theatre for the combat.

The birds are prepared for this combat in a manner suited to the occasion. The comb and such feathers as would be both useless and inconvenient ornaments, are removed. Their heads are therefore stripped of these, and their wings reduced to an extent which only allows them to raise themselves to a small height. Their tail,

which is cut square, gives them a martial turn, and imparts to their gait a spruce and easy appearance. Their spurs are armed with steel, very sharp and cutting, and of the form of a poignard.

Like horses prepared for the race-course, cocks are subjected to a regimen, to which is to be attributed, in a great measure, the strength they put forth. The food they receive tends to prevent fat, and adds to the energy and play of their muscles. They are purged, are made to swallow stimulants, and kept in continual irritation, as well as in a forced exercise. The effect of these minute observances discloses itself by a rapidity and violence of movement, which gives to the birds thus treated an incontestable superiority over their fellows subjected to an ordinary regimen.

As soon as the combatants are in presence, they look at each other with fierceness, and each in some sort measures and judges his opponent. Immediately afterwards, they give tokens of a fury the gradations of which can be easily observed; incline their necks towards

the ground, and, after having preserved this attitude during some seconds, as if to gather up their courage and their strength, rush towards each other. The bill is the first weapon of which they avail themselves, but the most formidable is the spur. They seek to strike each other with it in the head, upon the back, in the sides. The blood runs from their deep and numerous wounds, from the bill, even from the eyes. Their fury increases in consequence; they watch each other's motions, and deal out fresh blows till one of the combatants drops.

It often happens that while both lie dying in the arena, they summon up, as though by concert, a remnant of life, rush against each other, add to their wounds, and fall down again. But their fury has not forsaken them, and the gambols of their agony still wear the character of valour, and afford to the umpire the means of deciding with whom the victory rests.

When the fight is only disastrous to one of the combatants, the conqueror walks proudly round his fallen enemy, and attempts, with an exhausted voice, a crow of triumph, to which

the acclamations of the enthusiastic spectators respond.

The race of cocks has lost its Thersites. Sometimes, however, but rarely, there are cowards, in whom the sight of an adversary causes a tremor, and who fly to avoid the fight. The spectators at first, and afterwards their masters, are without pity for them, and the hisses of the one are but the prelude of a sentence of death pronounced and inexorably executed by the other.

In their absurd prejudice in favour of birth, the English persuade themselves that cowardice is only discovered among birds whose pure breed has been interrupted by a disproportioned alliance. In France, so ill-sounding an opinion would be anathematised by its application to the breed of cocks.

The aspect of a cock-pit differs from all assemblages that have pleasure for their object. He who has not been present at the sittings of a certain assembly, where graver interests are discussed, would find it impossible to form an idea of the cries, the gestures, the applause,

the blows, the stamping and clattering which the spectators resort to by way of expressing their impatience. There are only wanting, to complete the resemblance between a cock-pit and the nameless chamber, those gross insults and menaces which are not allowed in the English assembly. In order to check the excess of turbulence, there is suspended from the ceiling, by means of a cord passed through a pulley, a large basket intended for the reception of disturbers who transgress the limits—for the rest extensive enough—assigned to ill-breeding.

France, which is so eager to model her institutions on those of Great Britain, should resort to this means, which perhaps would have more efficacy than a president's bell.

IRELAND.

GENERAL CONDITION OF IRELAND.

IRELAND contrives to afford subsistence to a population of eight millions, which England rather coerces than governs. The exercise of the Catholic religion furnished, for a long time, a pretext to those professing the faith of the established church, to put under a species of ban seven-eighths of the Irish population; and now that a more humane policy has raised up the hitherto proscribed Catholics to the rank of subjects of the same state, an unquiet and unruly spirit on the part of the latter, threatening to overturn all, seems in some degree to justify those exceptional measures, so long

maintained with rigour, and so lately removed from the code of British legislation.

Since the year 1798, an epoch of unhappy memory for her, Ireland has manifested an impatience of the English yoke, and a general discontent, which have obliged England to have recourse to additional measures of severity. The passing of the Catholic Relief Bill, far from having calmed the excitement, has, on the contrary, but tended to give fresh courage to the disturbers of the public peace. At this instant, the public tranquillity is daily compromised, under all the pretexts and forms which faction can invent. These unvaried interruptions of public order may lead to the most disastrous results.

The political excitement finds a powerful auxiliary in the distress of the country; nor is a physical force, for which almost any change must be a benefit, unwilling to lend its aid, on occasions when it may be found convenient to enlist its services. The Irish demagogue discovers for the Irish peasant a fancied or a true analogy between politics and religion, and

bids him take courage from the extent of his distress; thus excited, the peasant is let loose against power, property, in fact against every social and legal institution. Under the names of Whitefeet, Ribbonmen, &c. Irish *Jacquerie* exercises its lawless violence, its rapines, its burnings, in different parts of the country. Bound together by oaths which it were death to violate, these Irish factions commit the greatest excesses, unrestrained by the terrors of the law. In truth, all law is in abeyance in Ireland, for witnesses wish not, and dare not if they would, declare the truth.

A perfect organization, therefore, emboldens these confederates to raise the standard of almost open revolt. And now, as if things were not bad enough, a new organization springs up under the name of volunteers, spreading themselves over the towns and villages, as well as over the face of the country, and composed of men of the middle classes of society. When a unity of purpose and a settled direction have been given to their movements, they afford the protection of their numbers, and their ardour

to the agitators, who proceed openly towards the attainment of their object.

This object is no less than the repeal of the union between England and Ireland. Hence the name of Repealers, adopted by the Irish who wish for the dissolution of the union. Conjoined by a community of views, as well as of religious belief, recruited from the classes of the Whitefeet and the Ribbonmen, all of whom groan, as they conceive, under the yoke of a political servitude, the Repealers are still more formidable by the talents of the men who have placed themselves at their head.

From time to time conflicts take place, for which the payment of tithes forms the pretext: some are killed; burnings of houses ensue; peaceable inhabitants are murdered in a cowardly manner on the high road, if the popular rage has been excited against them: vengeance thus glutted, turns itself towards another point.

What the Irish desire is complete freedom; the equality of the Catholic with the Protestant faith; the exercise of those rights which the inhabitants of England and Scotland enjoy.

They want, in a word, their old constitution of 1782, and a native parliament, which would consider their interests distinct from those of England, and oblige the proprietors of the soil to abide on it, and spend in their country those revenues which are now squandered in foreign lands.

The Repealers have their leaders, as well as their government, which manifests its power in an open way. Its mandates are cheerfully obeyed; it levies taxes, which are boldly demanded and readily paid; it musters its troops in open array; and its tribunals execute its fearful sentences, of murder and burnings, with audacious impunity. 'The train of insurrection, so sedulously laid, requires but some daring hand to set fire to it. That well-known hand exists, directed by a powerful will and a steady purpose; but the considerations which hold it back are as well known as the hand itself.

RELIGION.

AMONG the main causes of the disastrous condition of Ireland may be placed that difference of opinion which, for more than two centuries, has manifested itself between the great body of the population professing the Roman Catholic faith, and a small fraction of it, favoured by their exemption from a penal code to which their Catholic brethren were till lately subjected. In a population consisting of eight millions, seven millions, professing the Catholic religion, have long groaned under all those harassing persecutions which religious rancour could superadd to party spirit. Large masses of wealth, in the hands of a few, enabled these few, for a time, to sustain an unequal struggle against a strong tyranny; but

deprived of the favour of the sovereign, and ineligible to the posts of honour, wealth in Ireland, in Catholic hands, could confer neither, power nor distinction. For a time, wealth might no doubt procure some degree of consideration; but a too tardy national justice deprived property of that influence which, under a good system of government, property should always enjoy. The people, seeing that it failed to confer the protection and happiness which are naturally expected from it; began to regard proprietors and wealthy men with indifference, and perhaps envy. Nevertheless, during the existence of persecution, a community of suffering and degradation, and a hatred of the government, their common oppressors, attached in some sort the tenant to his landlord; but that more intimate alliance between the lord and the vassal, which has always subsisted in England, and which is the effect of a prudent foresight as well as humanity on the part of the one, and of gratitude and duty on the part of the other, exists not in Ireland.

The state of poverty and degradation in which the Catholic clergy of Ireland languish, has placed the exercise of the sacerdotal functions in the hands of men little qualified by education to maintain, by their social position, or to exalt, the dignity of that church. The Catholic priesthood in Ireland is recruited from the lowest ranks of society. Too poor to acquire the necessary education, the Catholic priest supplies this want by a blind fanaticism, which becomes more dangerous from its rapid communication to the body of the people, in whom the priesthood excite, to the highest pitch of exaltation, a spirit of religious enthusiasm.

Hence that constant state of uneasiness, that disposition to discontent, those unceasing aggressions against a government always on the watch, and exaggerating the precautions necessary for its safety to the extreme point of converting those very precautions into an insufferable tyranny. Hence this division of Ireland into two political and religious classes; one of them, the most numerous, the poorest,

and the most excited; the other, the weakest in numbers, the strongest in power and wealth, and the most impelled to abuse both the one and the other. Hence, in fine, a hatred always ready to burst forth with that character of violence resulting from the respective situations of the conflicting parties.

In order to modify this state of things, no help could have availed, short of that civilization with which England was, in a measure, supplied from the Continent; and which showed her the justice of exercising a benign influence towards unhappy Ireland. It was necessary that England should have rolled back upon her, from the Irish shores, those cries of liberty, those declamations against intolerance, to which she was so clamorously giving vent in all quarters of the globe. It was necessary that England, the country which prides itself on its spirit of the most expansive liberty, should be made to behold in its true colours that state of political and religious coercion which she maintained by the exercise of an oriental despotism. But it was necessary above

all, and before all, that the people, for whom humanity and justice were raising their united voices, should burst their chains of bondage, and threaten to convert them into weapons against their oppressors.

The measure which was to call Ireland to a participation of rights too long overlooked, did not fail to meet with an obstinate resistance in the prejudices and feelings of the dominant nation. England feared the uses to which Ireland would turn her recovered liberty. Such a transition from servitude to comparative freedom was the more to be dreaded, as it had been prepared beforehand by the efforts made to excite the passions to the highest pitch of hope, and by a state of wretchedness which could not fail to drive the people into acts of despair, and which there existed no means of effectually relieving.

Able statesmen clung to the then existing state of things, not that they approved of it, but that they feared the dangerous consequences which might flow from the most trifling modification of the system. To their

successors they bequeathed the difficult task which they had not the courage to undertake; and finding it easier to perpetuate tyranny than to administer justice, they concluded that the easiest course was that of keeping Ireland in thraldom.

The Government was at last obliged to abandon the line which it had prescribed to itself; but in adopting that resolution, it was no longer enabled to guard against the consequences which must inevitably attend it. The concession which was thus wrung from power was looked upon, by the Irish, as an indication of its weakness. A religious spirit now came to the aid of that philosophy which had, hitherto, only struggled for the removal of an unjust ascendency; and lending to the cause all its accustomed bitterness and rancour, as well as its language, threw its whole force into the political strife. This religious spirit is now at work. It still mingles in the combat, harassing its enemy, and seeking to obtain, with its own peculiar weapons, those new and extensive concessions, which it is not in a condition openly to exact.

This spirit calls to its aid other passions, other interests, all species of discontent, every form of opposition. It allies itself to every complaining tongue, to every strong arm, and finds, moreover, far more formidable auxiliaries in the embarrassments which beset the Government.

In this conjuncture, the Government has recourse to various expedients, which at another season, under different circumstances, had proved successful—expedients which they loudly condemned, when a neighbouring government broke down in the attempt to resort to them, under circumstances infinitely more urgent, menacing, and dangerous. These expedients are borrowed from an exceptional system. Will they succeed in the present condition of affairs? and if they do succeed, can their success be durable? The future alone can reveal the truth; for in the present convulsed state of society, and of the principles on which society rests, it is difficult to foresee what may yet come to pass. But is the future, such as it has been prepared by the daring innovators who now dread to

consult it—is this future calculated to calm our apprehensions? Is it not from Ireland that will blow the storm, the fearful elements of which had been so long slumbering, and have been since spread abroad with such fatal fury? England may well tremble with apprehension, for already are heard at no great distance the howl of the tempest and the roar of the whirlwind.

In vain it is sought to lull the storm, by yielding up some of the numerous abuses which had crept into the practice of the dominant faith in Ireland. In vain it is now proposed to surrender some portion of the wealth of the established church.

It is still a problem in physics, whether the conductor does not invite, rather than avert the thunder. The same uncertainty still exists in political science concerning the effect of concession, which may be called a species of *political conductor*, more likely, in truth, to invite and invigorate the spirit of destruction, than to avert or annihilate it.

Richly endowed for doing nothing, the

clergy of the established church in Ireland were mainly intent on levying tithes, of which they too often spent the produce in England. Ministers have now assumed the initiative, in reducing the wealth of an establishment which conferred no benefit on the Irish people, and the revenues of which were certainly not turned, by the incumbents, to very apostolic uses.

The Catholic clergy, whose social position will in no degree be improved by these reductions, will not, in consequence of them, be a whit more disposed to support the government; for these changes fail to remove the great defects of the Catholic clergy, their poverty, their want of education, the abjectness of their social position. The measures, therefore, which have been adopted in reference to religion, in Ireland, have only succeeded in causing the cessation of a prolonged legislative injustice, in producing a fiscal improvement, but they afford no preservative against dangers which are daily assuming a more alarming character.

IRISH ESTATES.

THE tenure by which Irish property is held, the mode of holding it, the union of many small farms into one of considerable extent, the vastness of some estates—these are, also, master-causes of the deplorable condition of Ireland. Small farmers have wholly disappeared; the class heretofore so denominated is fallen many steps lower in the social ladder, and is now subject to all the ills and inconveniences incidental to poverty, a poverty which, contrasted with their comparatively happier state in former times, is rendered the more insupportable. A spirit of envy and hatred has, accordingly, sprung up in the minds of the people towards the richer and more favoured classes of the community.

A diminution of manual labour has been consequent on the extension of farms. Machinery is now introduced into agricultural, as it has long since been into manufacturing industry; and whilst, for the mass of mankind, such introduction is a palpable benefit, it is yet a great and overwhelming evil for those engaged in the particular labour which has, to a certain extent, been suppressed by the use of machinery. This effect has been more apparent and more deplorable in Ireland, than in England; for in that country the great proprietors are, with few exceptions, non-residents, and know not whether their tenantry stand in need of their sympathy and protection. The great object of the Irish landlord seems to be, to diminish as much as possible the cost of labour, and to increase as much as possible, and by whatever means, his annual income: thus he neither receives nor deserves the benedictions of his tenantry. In this respect, he forms the disreputable exception to the landlords of more civilized communities; in quitting the land of his birth, and becoming, as it were,

a stranger to it, the Irish gentleman, by his own act, deprives himself of the affection of his tenants. If he return to it, his visits are few, far between, and of short duration; the reception which he meets with on these occasions is generally cold, sometimes even hostile. Disgust, a real or supposed fear, caused by their own acts and course of conduct, finally induce Irish proprietors to leave a country in which they seem apprehensive for their safety: thus is engendered a reciprocal animosity and hatred, without the least likelihood of their giving way, on either side, to better feelings.

In addition to the disadvantages just enumerated, there is another inseparable from the condition of an absentee. He takes every thing out of his country, and sends nothing into it. For a series of years, enormous sums have been extracted from Ireland, to be expended in England—on the Continent—everywhere, in fact, except in the country whose sweat and labour have supplied so much exportable wealth. The sources of this wealth and production, owing to frequent draining, are now dried up, to the

great chagrin and dismay of the landlord, and to the more urgent misery of the tenant, who, in addition to the discontent of his landlord, has to undergo the severer punishment of a redoubled privation. Bread, the basis of subsistence in other countries, is in Ireland a luxury, to which the poverty of the tenant does not allow him to aspire. The potatoe, without any other nourishment, furnishes subsistence to the people at large. Happy is the family in Ireland which can even acquire a sufficiency of this species of nourishment.

Hence has arisen a prostration of the moral and physical faculties of Ireland, which has destroyed all finer feeling,—and blunts all sense of wretchedness, all desire to find a remedy for it. Ireland can only be stimulated by the cravings of hunger. Indifferent to every other feeling*

* Lord B—— attempted, on his estate, to substitute healthy habitations for the miserable cabins of the peasantry. He caused many comfortable cottages to be erected, with separate apartments and chimneys, a luxury not generally known in Irish cabins. He was compelled to resort, as it were, to a species of coercion, in order to compel the peasant to inhabit these new cottages. On his return from London, on one occasion, he found

than hunger, the Irish peasant does not trouble himself concerning the almost complete nakedness of his offspring, or the filth of the cabin, which he holds in joint tenancy with the pig, the calf, and the fowl, that supply him with a few shillings, from time to time, wherewith to procure his family whisky. He works little, because labour is unfrequent as well as ill-paid, and this discouragement to work brings idleness in its train.

The immense tracts of unreclaimed common and bog, in Ireland, are a reproach to the agricultural industry of Great Britain. An obsolete legislation, adapted to an epoch when there was a dearth of farmers to cultivate the soil, suffers a vast quantity of unreclaimed land to lie fallow. Such a practice might be accounted for in a country thinly populated; but what apology can be made for it in a state of society where hundreds of thousands are dying of hun-

every thing destroyed but the walls and roof of his new buildings,—the partitions, the chimneys, the windows—every thing had disappeared. In want of the common necessaries of life, the poor could only view those comforts in the light of superfluities.

ger in the midst of lands which might be made to teem with fertility? What can be said of the policy of reserving such lands for some undefined purpose, which can never occur under circumstances more favourable than those which would now recommend their immediate cultivation?

In vain does the unfortunate peasant turn a wistful eye towards these unreclaimed lands; he sees in the bosom of the now unfruitful earth, a prospect of labour, and a reward of toil, a harvest which may grow to maturity, abundant means of existence; but he knows that he will not be allowed to turn those advantages to account. Never shall his plough till these fields—never shall his spade turn up a soil dedicated to perpetual sterility. All he can expect to enjoy is the produce of some miserable animals, and too often does his hard fortune deny him even the possession of them. By the side of those animals which a wretched nutriment renders almost valueless, a whole family pines away in inaction; while the surface of grazing land necessary for the support of a cow

would amply suffice to provide for their wants.

To these causes of wretchedness and poverty is superadded the rigorous enforcement of tithe from the cultivators of the soil. Gathered for the profit of pastors without flocks, collected for the uses of a religion to which the people do not belong, tithe serves but to feed the luxury of a clergy living out of the country, and wholly regardless of the misery of the tithe-payers by whose labour they subsist. The unfortunate natives, belonging as they do to a different religion, are beyond the pale of the sympathy or care of the Protestant pastor.

It is chiefly in Ireland that the Corporations of London are possessed of estates: proprietors divested of all attachment to the soil, without any personal interest, or any of those strong motives of duty which should bind the landlord to the tenant—their whole object* seems

* It must however be acknowledged that the Corporation estates are generally administered with care, and upon liberal principles. They are admirably cultivated; the

to be to receive their rents, and to spend them out of the country; a twofold and unavoidable cause of impoverishment for the land condemned to be thus misgoverned.

In order to expend on her soil some fragments of capital, of which so many causes tend to divest Ireland, Great Britain quarters a large military force on her dependent province. Some few millions distributed in the payment of this force are almost the only circulating medium of the country.

roads running through them are kept in proper repair, and the wants of the poor upon those estates, as well as their instruction, are humanely attended to.

IRISH POOR.

IRELAND may be said to be peopled with poor. The number of families who live in easy circumstances, forms a fearful disproportion to those who are in a perfect state of destitution. The last and only comfort which remains to the inhabitants of Ireland, a people more wretched than those of any other civilized country, is this—and it is a miserable one—that the distress is universal, and common to all the inhabitants. Those, therefore, who suffer in a state of society where all are alike wretched, are spared the additional misery of instituting comparisons which could only aggravate the misery of their lot.

There are in Ireland no poor-laws as in England. Public charity is the uncertain purveyor to the certain wants of the Irish poor; and immense is the task which is imposed on this casual handmaid. Matters are now, however, advanced to a state in which they cannot much longer continue.

The first remedy which presents itself to the mind of philanthropists anxious for the happiness of their species, is the institution of a system of poor-laws similar to that which obtains in England. To judge, however, of the English poor-laws by the results which they produce in England, it is with difficulty one can agree in the conclusion that they are calculated to meet the emergency which is admitted to exist in Ireland.

Notwithstanding the enormous cost of the poor-laws, they but imperfectly attain the end of their institution; and, perhaps, one of the most positive effects of these laws is to encourage idleness, to create new wants on the part of the poor, and to generate a carelessness and indifference as to the future, which cannot but

have a disastrous influence on their moral faculties

To these laws are attached conditions little in harmony with that liberty which is the boast of Englishmen; and the condition of the poor, notwithstanding the considerable sums bestowed on their relief, is, in reality, worse than in any other country.

In France there exists no other law concerning the poor than that which, however inadequate to meet the object in view, nevertheless forbids mendicity. In France, it is justly supposed that principles of religion and humanity would do more to extinguish mendicity than the law itself; for they would act with more discernment and with better feeling. The form of relief accordingly assumes an endless variety; such, for instance, as the customs and resources of the different localities. The expenses are met by a voluntary contribution, which is the more readily assented to, as it may be levied by a tax upon produce, and as each contributor is assessed in a degree proportioned to the means at his command.

If the indigent population of Ireland be numerous, the extent of its uncultivated lands exceeds all belief. Much misery would be relieved by the employment of useless hands in the cultivation of a soil wholly valueless at present, and by the endeavour to raise the means of supplying what would still be wanting, in consequence of the inadequacy of the produce of labour for the support of the poor.

If the establishment of poor-laws in Ireland should, from the existing disproportion between the resources and the wants of that country, encounter many obstacles, perhaps it would be agreed on to depart wholly from the abuses of the English system, of which we have been speaking; and then we might expect to witness results the more important as the institution of poor-laws would be directed to the relief of classes comparatively more wretched, and, whether owing to necessity or habit, more abstemious than the like classes in England. Some potatoes added to the nourishment of an Irish family, would suffice to create for such family a degree of relative comfort; and the culture

of some barren and unproductive lands would give them habits of labour, finally produce good conduct, and a strict observance of religious duties, by which means a visible improvement would take place in the moral condition of that degraded part of society.

IRISH EMIGRATION.

In order to escape the numerous and complicated miseries which await them on their natal soil, a vast number of Irish families emigrate. They collect together, for this purpose, their wretched resources, the foul lees which remain after the juice of the grape has been fully expressed. With these remnants of means, they pay the freight of their passage to America, the Canadas, or New South Wales. In these countries similar privations, nay, a species of slavery, awaits them; for, in order to subsist, and to procure lands and the means of locating themselves, it is necessary that they should mortgage their labour for many years in advance. Sometimes the

unfortunate emigrants perish in their venturous attempts; but death in these instances is not immediately occasioned by hunger — it is a slower and less horrible death, and there is this consolation, that a more hopeful future than their native country presented is reserved to the members of the family who survive them.

England also receives her share of Irish emigration; each year brings to her shores thousands of Irish, who come to mingle with the already too numerous crowd of unemployed natives. They bring to the common stock vigorous and sinewy arms, too often rendered unfit for labour by the immoderate use of gin. These Irish find their way to all the workshops and mix in all quarrels: one sees them everywhere, where there is work and where there is riot, equally prepared for the one or the other, and always restless and troublesome. These dispositions often interfere with their employment, and are sometimes among the causes which produce their distress.

IRISH CONSTITUTION.

FOR a long period of time Ireland had her own laws; a special form of administration—a parliament composed of two houses like the British parliament, which voted the ways and means, and regulated the general interests of the country. To the union of this parliament with that of England, Ireland opposed the strongest and most prolonged resistance; but at length their independent representation was exchanged for a share in the national representation. By the arrangements which took place at the time of this incorporation, twenty-eight of the Irish peers were to be elected, from the whole body, to sit in the upper house. This arrangement is different from that

which took place at the Scotch Union. A Scottish peer does not sit in the English House of Lords for life; he is liable to be re-elected or rejected at the dissolution of the House of Commons;—whereas an Irish peer sits for life.

Ireland sends to the lower house one hundred and six members, elected according to forms nearly resembling those which prevail in England. This unequal representation places the interests of Ireland in complete subservience to a combination of English and Scotch members. Hence that inevitable collision between England and Ireland. Hence complaints, well or ill founded, discontent, hatred, resistance, exceptional measures of a fearful energy on the part of the Government. Hence, in a word, the present state of things, so fertile in troubles, and which may in the end become fertile in disastrous events.

IRISH COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY.

LIKE all other sources out of which her prosperity should spring, the commerce and industry of Ireland are in a state of severe suffering. The extreme poverty of the people opposes itself to that active consumption which is, in every country, the surest basis of rapid and important commercial operations. Placed at the extremity of Europe, and separated from the Continent by the most commercial of all nations, Ireland suffers from the disadvantage of her geographical position; add to this, that capital, which naturally flows towards every country where a profitable return can be calculated on, has, owing to some unfortunate combination of circumstances,

never found channels for communicating itself to Ireland.

It should certainly appear that capital would find a profitable return in manufacturing industry, in a country in which the superabundance of labourers should diminish the rate of labour; but the fact is otherwise: with some few exceptions, Ireland possesses no manufactures of any note.

A capitalist will seldom adventure his money, unless he can constantly superintend the operations of that labour which he has put in action; and he is unwilling to subject himself to the risks of a continued political fermentation. Be the cause what it may, the effect of this absence of capital is deplorably felt, and its influence in perpetuating the national distress cannot be contested.

IRISH SCIENCE AND LITERATURE.

WITHOUT having any national literature which she may properly call her own; without any marked superiority in science or in arts, Ireland has contributed, nevertheless, her full quota to the general stock which illustrates the annals of Great Britain, by the number and talent of those distinguished men to whom she has given birth.

Bishops Jebb and Magee, and Dean Kirwan, have acquired a just renown by their pulpit eloquence. Science is deeply indebted to Young, Donovan, and Westley. Literature may justly be proud of such men as Usher, Goldsmith, Sheridan, Swift, Sterne, and Moore; and of Burke, Castlereagh, Grat-

tan, Curran, Plunkett, Ponsonby, Canning, and O'Connell, as orators and statesmen; and whatever opinion individuals may entertain regarding the direction in which he exerts his talents, of the Duke of Wellington, whose military glory is, however, so transcendant, as to eclipse the renown to which he may lay claim as a statesman:—all these stand deservedly high in public opinion.

Ireland, then, should be ranged among those nations which have produced, and still give promise of producing, men distinguished in the walks of literature and science, and above all, in politics.* It is, therefore, only just to conclude, that the vices and imperfections of her sons arise from an absence of, or an imperfect education, rather than from any inherent or natural vice.

* Whether it arises from a want of taste, or from the dormant faculties of the nation, in this respect, not having been awakened, certain it is, that Ireland has produced no name renowned in the fine arts.

MILITARY SPIRIT OF THE IRISH.

IRISH turbulence has hitherto consented to submit to the yoke of military discipline. Poverty drives into the army a vast body of young men, who become excellent soldiers. Ireland is the nursery which supplies the greater part of the recruits of the British army. A considerable proportion of the most distinguished officers, of all ranks, are also of Irish birth. One of the most remarkable traits in the Irish character is their great aptitude for a military life. In the ranks of the army, where turbulence must yield to a severe and strict discipline, the national spirit of the Irish appears in the most favourable light, and is entitled to the most unreserved praise.

IRISH CHARACTER.

IRELAND contains as wretched a population as any in the world; a population too, which, it may be said, makes the best efforts of any to escape from its wretchedness and misery; a people unquestionably, also, the most enslaved, but who, in a great measure, justify the exercise of acts of coercion and restraint, by their perpetual efforts to escape from an authority disposed to measures of moderation; a people the most sincere and devoted adherents to the Catholic faith, but who, in following its minute observances, have allowed the spirit of that religion to evaporate; a people who rank among the most simple and yet the most gifted nations, no less brave than prone

to acts of the basest and the most cruel revenge; habituated to privation, yet among the least sober—of energetic resolve, and as great inconstancy in action; a people, in fine, among the readiest to labour, and yet among the idlest of modern nations. There is no vice of the Irish which is not qualified by some latent virtue, not a virtue which is not disfigured by some defacing vice. The Irish character is a compound of *finesse* and *naïveté*. It is a mixture of the Gascon and the Bœotian, of piquancy and folly. If the Italians had not already embodied forth the character of harlequin, the Irish people could have furnished the outline of it.

Their hasty passions are quickly excited into all the violence of anger; hence arise their imprudent resolves, of which reflection does not retard the execution; their transition from good-humour to passion is short, and quickly embraced. In politics, they are as headstrong as in private life. Anger is the monitor to whose counsels they most willingly listen, and they are ever prone to adopt its suggestions. Accordingly, they are perpetually falling into

error, the first consequence of which is an aggravation of their evils. In consequence of this *bizarrerie*, and of the contrasts in which it abounds, the Irish character may be considered as the cause and effect of the state of things which has just been described.

CONCLUSION.

ARRIVED at the limit I had proposed to myself, it becomes me to cast a retrospective glance at my labours, in order to ascertain whether my observations have preserved, in a collected form, that character of truth which, isolated, they presented to my mind. It becomes me to see whether, in the judgments which I have pronounced, prejudice has not invaded the ground of impartiality, to examine whether my criticisms bear the impress of a depreciating spirit, which it certainly was no part of my intention to give to them—to inquire whether my encomiums have not been exaggerated; in a word, it becomes me to know whether I have attained the object I had in view. A conscientious

examination still presents the subjects of my remarks in the point of view in which they had at first appeared to me. Generally consigned to paper the moment they struck me, the impressions I have received have remained unchanged. I have described manners and customs, such as they presented themselves, and as experience revealed them. I have rather stated the dissimilarities which England exhibits, on a comparison with other countries, than pointed out any peculiar failings. I have sought to trace the principal outline, and some of the shades of difference which distinguish the English physiognomy, rather than its features of resemblance, which it has been my endeavour to avoid. Have I succeeded? This is a question which it does not become me to answer.

If I should be accused of having infused too much severity into certain opinions, I will call to witness my intentions, and declare that the imperfections, the *bizarreries* (or what I conceived to be such) which I have pointed out, originate, according to me, in a principle

entitled to respect, the advantages of which infinitely counterbalance its inconveniences. These imperfections are, in my mind, a consequence of the national character, grave even to dullness, and moving with a prudence which renders it often stationary. It brings in its train a long retinue of laws, usages, and prejudices. With such a *cortège*, it would be difficult for it to march as quickly as the civilization of other countries ; it is, therefore, always some steps in the rear, and requires to be urged on and stimulated. It marches slowly, because it is unwilling to be separated from anything to which long custom has attached it. Such is its perseverance in this system, that it destroys no part of those customs which now and for ever are fallen into disuse. It preserves, under the rust of ages, laws in which one would vainly seek a provision — the slightest idea — at all applicable to the existing epoch ; but there is wisdom in preserving those laws as a mark of respect for the past, and as a warning to future generations, that they should uphold existing institutions. Thus it was that the

English constitution was formed, an ancient edifice, composed of the legislative architecture of times and manners the tradition of which has scarcely reached us, and of which Westminster Hall, with its Gothic walls and modern arrangement, appears in some sort to be the symbol. Accordingly, we are witnesses to the maturity of reflection displayed by the national character, at a moment when it is beset on all sides by the fury of passions on the watch to invade it. How soon it recovers from emotions the effects of which it could not altogether resist; how soon it returns to what it was before; and how, when obliged to move onwards, it cautiously treads the unknown soil before it. This is because good sense forms the groundwork of that character; and for nations as well as for individuals, this precious gift is the first condition of happiness.

Let England, therefore, console herself for the absence of that mobility of imagination calculated to dazzle, it is true, but also a source, an inexhaustible source, of calamities for nations. Let her turn her eyes towards a neigh-

bouring country, endowed in the highest degree with that brilliant faculty, and see whether the halo of glory, with which she dazzles herself, is not too dearly purchased by a continued state of present disturbance and of future uneasiness. And should England betake herself to view with a feeling of regret the distance which, in certain respects, separates her from some parts of the Continent, let her compare her situation with that of those countries which she might have the weakness to envy, and let her then declare, whether the permanence of her Institutions, her perseverance in a line of conduct fruitful in happy results, be not preferable to the vain glory of shining in the arts, or of astonishing the mind by unheard-of discoveries; preferable, in fine, to those dangerous systems which disturb the peace of Europe, and prepare an all-consuming conflagration by the aid of those lights with which the votaries of such systems pretend to enlighten the world.

PHILOSOPHY OF EXILE.

For two years and upwards, to escape a political condemnation, I have dwelt in England. What have I seen there? What have I done there? How have I there spent my time, my money? What is left me instead?

Such are the questions which I put to myself on the second anniversary of my arrival in a country to which I had brought great uneasiness, painful recollections, an uncertain future, and prejudices which ill prepared me to be pleased with it. A storm in which, unfortunate pilot as I was—call me unskilful if you choose—the vessel committed in part to my charge, had perished, threw me upon its shores. I solicited of them an asylum

which, from choice, I should have sought elsewhere. Prudence counselled me to submit with a good grace to what to me was an imperative necessity, and to banish as useless discouraging thoughts, the comparison of my past condition and my present lot, of my native land and the land of exile, of what I had been and what I was about to be; in short, to do in adversity what I had done in more favourable circumstances—obtain from my situation all that it could yield of honour, of consideration, and of pleasure. Regrets, hesitation to enter upon the position to which I was doomed, ill-humour with its inconveniences, resistance to its demands—these would have been the only results that would have accrued to me from a contrary resolution. It was more rational to put away whatever was of a nature to give me pain, to adapt my situation to my resources, to caress it, in order to render it the more complaisant, to employ my mind in such a manner as to leave the less room for care, to advance with eyes shut towards a future, which my will had not the power

to modify, that I might not see all the threatening things which it might bring with it, and not to open them unless to look to a very short distance; to depend a little upon calculation, a little more on the reputation which I possessed, still more on the facility of my character to give way to men and circumstances, and a great deal upon the chance which a combination of all these should produce; in short, to impose silence on my imagination, if it should dare to assail me with importunate regrets or desires, by comparing my lot with what it might have been—London, with Ham, liberty in a foreign land with a prison in my own country.

This plan—if plan it were—has succeeded. If it has not gained me happiness, it has at least rendered time supportable. It even seems to me that when the sorrows of the first moment had once become blunted—and they were very keen—my life has not been either more unhappy, more idle, or more unpleasant than formerly. It seems, indeed, that I should have to applaud myself for this trial, even if it were

not destined to be prolonged. Proscription has proved to be a title to consideration and interest: I have endeavoured to give to exile the character of travel. I dwell in a world that is new to me. I there find other manners, other amusements. But it is life, it is consideration, that an honourable man saves from the wreck of a high position; above all it is liberty, it is air. Ought I to complain when I reflect that I might, that in all probability I should, have been deprived of the one and have had no more of the other than the barred window of a fortified castle would have admitted? I have found, I know not how, goodwill, which, treated with due attention, has ripened into affection, acquaintances who are become friends.

That varnish of condemnation which I carry along with me has not been unserviceable to me. The curiosity which in England attaches to whatever is out of the common course, to men as well as to things; the vanity which causes those who have played a conspicuous part to be sought after; filled up all the voids

left, especially at first, by the various elements composing my existence. They have bound them together in such a manner as to give them an elevated situation in society, and to make of me, in spite, nay perhaps on account, of the events which have been my downfall, a personage who by common consent is sought after, questioned, consulted; for whom the first place is everywhere reserved; and who, notwithstanding his previous habits, is regarded as a sort of political authority.

A continual alternation of visits among a numerous society, which appeared desirous to lay itself open to my observation, and of complete seclusion, placed at my disposal valuable materials, time and solitude to study and arrange them. I was in a new situation, stimulated by a something to which I was unaccustomed, and which extended itself to my moral and physical economy.

All this acted powerfully upon my senses, roused my spirits, and gave them an impetus and a direction which they had never had. My sensations issued from a corner of my imagina-

tion in which methought I had never yet rummaged; thoughts, ideas to which I was a stranger came forth from it.

I set about cultivating a soil from which I had not yet demanded any crop, and which, without costing me fatigue, yielded far beyond my hopes. Placed hitherto in high situations, I had considered them only as means of seeing farther, of embracing wider prospects.

I was then in the first boxes of the great theatre of the world. I saw more at my ease; perhaps I did not observe so closely. Thrust down into the pit, mingled with the crowd, elbowed, squeezed, in my turn, looking from below at the scene which I used to view from above, objects appeared under another aspect, whilst the drama lost none of its interest.

I had time; I had wrought for myself independence; I employed them in rendering an account to myself of what I had seen and done in the course of my administrative career, and during the short but stormy period of my ministry; of what politics, events, chances, were preparing for or against the cause with which

my lot was connected; of what struck my eye and my mind in the land of exile.

Too true not to be offensive, composed to record, but for myself alone, recollections that are precious to me, the period at which these Memoirs shall appear cannot be specified. In all probability I may not be permitted to judge of the effect which they shall produce. There are facts which my situation, whilst imparting a thorough knowledge of them, forbids me to reveal. The anecdotes which might serve to season the whole would attack men whom it is my duty to spare, and to whom I have vowed gratitude and affection. Were I to suppress these anecdotes, I should be but the cold and spiritless narrator of events, which I should relate, just as many others have done, without diving to the bottom, in order to discover their causes and to trace their results. I find myself compelled, therefore, to keep these Memoirs in my portfolio, or not to take them out of it unless to communicate them to a few friends, and to give authentic evidence of possession.

To confess the truth, I regret that it is so,

because I think that I perceive in the subject, and in the colours which I have given to it, something that classes an historian.

By availing myself of the facility of character consistent with my personal dignity; by forgetting so much of the past as would have produced only useless regrets; by calling, above all, to my aid those family affections, those relations of a friendship tried by adversity, those attachments to one's native land, so powerful against misfortune, so consolatory in affliction; I have created for myself an existence endurable within myself, honourable and even brilliant without.

When the pangs of exile are too acute, when the separation from all that is dear to me is too painfully felt, I have recourse to my imagination; I give scope to it by directing it towards my country, the access to which is not forbidden to it, as it is to me. It there seeks, it there finds, the objects of my affections, and it returns laden with a harvest of soothing thoughts, of precious recollections, which I examine at leisure, which I *cull*, as it were

piecemeal, one by one; which I press to squeeze out of them all the pleasures, all the consolations, which they contain.

These encroachments upon sorrow, these short revels in illusions, assist me, in some measure, to *shift misfortune from one shoulder to another*, and tend to lighten the burden.

I had enough to do with my own troubles. I have, as far as lay in my power, kept aloof from those which were not absolutely personal to me. Many griefs are purely conventional: we should greatly diminish the sum total of these, were we to enclose them, like mourning, within a specific circle of affections. That we should grieve on account of those we love is quite natural; but to carry pity to the length of grief for calamities which will never reach us, and which we cannot alleviate, for persons whom we have never seen, and who will not thank us for it, is a luxury of affliction, in which we ought not to indulge, unless we have nothing to do in that way for ourselves, and we are annoyed by an excess of happiness and joy—a very rare circumstance in life, and of

very short duration! A noble mind takes a real share in the afflictions of those who are dear to it; a weak one has affections in reserve for all the sorrows that are revealed to it. The sympathy of the one may be of service; that of the other is of none.

There are—I know it from experience—few misfortunes, at the bottom of which, if we make strict search, we shall not find consolations: the difficulty is to apply them, often, indeed, to own them to ourselves, because they sometimes hurt honourable feelings, and are based upon considerations which appear to be not so. In the end, however, they produce their effect: all that is requisite is to allow them time. It is sufficient to leave to the latter the task of reconciling them with decorum. For, thanks to that mediator, what would be wrong to-day will be right in a month—in a few days. Should we be so very culpable, if we were to assist, to urge, the operation of the remedy, paying due respect at the same time to all the decencies of social life, which we can never oppose without great prejudice to ourselves?

Whilst defending myself against grief, I did not, however, resist certain melancholy impressions which resulted from my position, and which it would have been impossible for me to escape.

Few can have any conception of that grief which is felt for *an absent father-land* who have not experienced it with the terrible accessory of exile, which deprives you of the hope of ever revisiting it, and the happiness of having a point upon which to base your plans. The recollections which, under other circumstances, you would have called forth as means of comfort or resignation, beset you, annoy you, because they are then but regrets.

Have those friends of whose affection they remind you themselves remained faithful? Are not those who have retained their attachment to you as unhappy as yourself upon your account? Shall you ever see them again? That adored mother, whose old age it is your duty to render less oppressive, will expire, and her hand, actuated by that instinct of tenderness, which survives all other sensations, will

in vain seek your brow to lay upon it her last blessing. Your wife, separated from you for ever, is doomed to a precarious position, an equivocal existence, a melancholy life, and blighted prospects. Your children, educated afar from you, will soon find your features erased from their memory, as well as your affection from their hearts: they will know you only by the name which you have transmitted to them, which they will be reproached with as a fault, which will be objected to them as an obstacle. Who knows but that weary of your proscription, which will extend to them, they may behold with indifference, nay even wish for, the event which will replace them in the ordinary condition of society?

Upon nothing—not even on inanimate things themselves—dare you suffer your thoughts to dwell. If the flower which enamels the meads of your country springs up beneath your feet, its form, its fragrance, remind you of happy days which will never return, of affectionate recollections which perhaps you alone still cherish, of the sports of your childhood, and

even of the friends who shared them—but they remind you too that you are CONDEMNED never to behold them more.

The estates which you possessed, and to which you owed the enjoyments attached to wealth, you are forced to renounce. The dwelling which you had taken delight in embellishing, the trees which you had planted, the woods which lent you their shade, you will never see again. Never more will you set your foot on those alleys which you laid out yourself. No more will your eyes rove over those scenes which you were never weary of contemplating. Your imagination will fatigue itself in retracing all their contours, and in pausing, struck by the imperfection of the picture, upon all the objects which chance shall present to it.

The gait of a stranger will remind you of a friend. You brush away the tears that dim your vision, that you may take a better look at an aged woman, whose fixed and sorrowful eye persuades you that she too is pining after a son who is never to be restored to her. The eagerness with which a boy runs to meet his

father will bring to your remembrance that thus your son too would fly into your arms.

To reunite in your memory cherished features, you will love to place yourself amidst a group of children of the age of your own: from one you will borrow its blue eyes, from another its light hair, from a third its ruddy cheeks. Others will furnish you with their smile, their air, their stature, the tone of their voice. But at the moment when the illusion is on the point of being complete, your exhausted imagination will suffer these traits, which it had been so assiduously collecting, to slip from its grasp; and you will find yourself surrounded by noisy urchins, uninteresting to you since you have ceased to seek in their faces resemblances to that which you were striving to retrace.

By separating the dearest objects from one another, exile produces on the soul a grief which finds no remedy but in hope, if the separation is to have a term; in oblivion if it is to last for ever.

In the first case the sorrow is less keen, but of much longer duration; because the thoughts

dwell incessantly on subjects which nourish grief. In the second, it makes an effort to wean itself from what would afflict it to no purpose; it portions off the past, in order not to embarrass the future with it. It soon directs itself towards other objects; it is occupied with other engagements, other combinations. By interposing between it and the affections with which it must learn to dispense, time insensibly effaces the recollection of them.

Weary of the attempts which it makes to preserve some traces of the features of relatives, of friends, of those who are dear to it, the heart relinquishes to the mind the task of retaining the fleeting impression.

The memory, in its turn, divests itself of names. If, at long intervals, it succeeds in catching them again, it feels neither interest nor regret on the occasion. One has ceased to love: of what use would it be to remember?

Soon nothing more is left of the country which the exile shall never see again but affection for the place of his birth. That affection subsists even when indifference has disgarnished

it of those who seemed desirous of causing it to be cherished.

These reflexions incessantly haunt the thoughts of an exile. Torments of his life, they take away the relish from the rare pleasures which he might be permitted to enjoy. They mingle with his meditations to such a degree as to prevent his indulging in them. They oblige him to fly that he may leave them behind him; to shift from place to place, in order to baffle their approach; to seek noisy scenes, for the purpose of keeping from his ears all the painful things with which they would fill them.

And what would he gain by giving himself up to grief? Nothing. It would weaken the fortitude which is necessary for him, without imparting any useful counsel whatever. It would paralyse his energy, and would give him up, in a more feeble state, to attacks, with which all the strength that Nature has bestowed is not sufficient to cope. It is his duty, on the contrary, to arm himself with resignation for the endurance of the ills which he cannot prevent, with resolution to combat what

he cannot avoid; to accustom his mind to create a future for itself, and to enrich it with all that can make it a medium of compensation for the past, of consolation for the present; and to seek diversion in the indulgence of tastes which are most habitual to him, and which he is most capable of gratifying.

Habit comes to the aid of philosophy in the efforts which she makes to lighten the burden of misfortune.

Between the sensations and the position of those who suffer, there are relations to which must be attributed that equal division of good and ill which is to be observed among the various classes of society. Joy and grief are, though with very different causes and very distant points of departure, carried to the same degree by individuals belonging to different social situations. The artisan who carries home to his family the wages of his week's labour, is as well pleased as the ambassador who has just obtained payment of the order for his monthly salary. The one thinks of the noisy joys of the pot-house; the other of the pleasure of gratify-

ing some expensive whim. A clown feels as much delight in meeting with a country-girl, as one of the great world in the society of a duchess. The banker, to whom a bankruptcy has left a fortune of no more than two or three millions (of francs) fancies himself, and is in reality, as unfortunate as the farmer who has lost his cow. There is as much grief in the soul of the poor wretch who is turned out of a garret because he is unable to pay the rent, as in that of a monarch driven by rebellion from his dominions. At the end of their career, the king and the beggar, if they had kept an exact account of their joys and their griefs, and were to compare them, would find that each day had brought them an equal proportion, and that life has not been heavier or lighter for the one than for the other: each of them has enjoyed and suffered after his manner: that is all the difference which would strike them.

I have had occasion to ascertain the justice of these reflections, in comparing my past existence with my present existence, my pains and pleasures of past times with my present

pains and pleasures, my own country with a foreign land. The days, the months, the years, pass away in one situation as they did in the other. Setting aside my affections, the preference which I should give to the old manner of suffering and enjoying over the new one proceeds entirely, I am certain, from a relic of habit.

Determined not to neglect any thing which could tend to lighten the pressure of my situation, I solicited succour from adversity itself against adversity. I have found that a great affliction, which predominates over, embraces, absorbs, all the trifling vexations of a painful position, is more easily endured than petty crosses, the place of which it in some measure usurps. I have a notion that all my philosophy would have found it difficult to overcome the mortification of losing a lofty position, and the influence and consideration attached to them, or to combat even the habits resulting from them, had any ordinary circumstances suddenly hurled me from the eminent post which I occupied to the spot whence I started to attain it. A great catastrophe accompanied

that event. It substituted dangers to the vexations which I should have dreaded.

Sorrowful recollections of the past, an inclination to compare it with the present, at the risk of finding in the latter nought but subjects of grief, regret for advantages which were never to return—all fled at the prospect of the perils which threatened me, and the sensation of the happiness which I felt at escaping them.

I no longer think of my having been minister and possessed of power.

I have escaped the horrors of a situation which might have been terrible. This idea leaves no room for regret: if there is some left for a little hope, 'tis as much as there is.

Adversity finds, moreover, resources and consolations in the dignity and resignation with which it is accompanied.

Time, when one is wise enough to suffer it to act, without thwarting its action, succeeds in making a position endurable. It wears down recollections, beginning with their asperities, retrenches what was too painful in them, frames pleasures proportionate to the faculties

which are left for relishing them, and throws them into the road leading to the term of all woes, in order to induce them to pursue it.

Among my blessings I reckon the ills from which I am exempt: envy is one of them. I have always thought that life is too short to waste any portion of it in fretting at the prosperity of others. Strictly speaking, this way of looking at things is a calculation of personal interest; for envy is a painful sentiment, a vexation which brings in nothing, and for which it is necessary to find some consolations, of which one has but too many occasions to make a better use.

I am addicted to habits and tastes which it would cost me painful efforts to modify or correct. I am not aware of any great necessity to do so. To have made the attempt in youth, at a period when the future stretched out far before me, and when errors may have consequences of long duration, might have been proper enough. But now that the future is very much abridged, that I can calculate its remotest term within a few days, to devote the

remainder of it to a contest with the habits in which I have grown old would be the height of folly. I keep them like affections.

Then comes an age, when, weary of every thing, what one deems the best part of a pleasure is the end of it, and when the summary of an amusing day is sleep. I have reached it. A similar enjoyment ought to be reserved for me, when, withdrawing from the vortex of the world, and from the remnant of business, which I might call the *liquidation of my past position*, I shall give myself up to absolute repose. Who knows if it will not be the same when my eyes shall close never to open again?

When I have exhausted reflections and consolations of this kind, I invoke the recollections of self-love. I search my past life to discover in it good done to my country, services rendered to my friends, circumstances honourable to myself. Neither are these attempts vain. I *glorify* myself without scruple, though, were I not to do so, nobody else would take the trouble; for it would be silly to calculate upon the gratitude of nations for the

good one has done them, or their esteem for the important things one has executed. Create, amidst a thousand difficulties, by dint of resolution, labour, perseverance — create for agriculture, commerce, and industry, new means of development; establish the prosperity of a country on solid bases; and you will draw down hatred upon yourself, opposition upon your plans, and obloquy upon your intentions, which will subsist so long as you are in power. When you are removed from it, public opinion will correct itself. It will discover good in what has been done, injustice in the judgments that have been pronounced.

At a later period, very long afterwards, a statue will perhaps be raised to the benefactor of the country, not because he has done good, but because, by throwing a mantle over the dress which he wore, he may be made the subject of a monument, which would set off the public place of some city, and which is recommended by the vanity of some administrator, who aspires to the honour of having erected it and of obtaining a similar one in his turn.

This posthumous glory, this accidental recollection of talents long unappreciated, though usefully employed, this tardy reparation of an obstinate injustice, are of no benefit to him who is the object of them—he is dead. His very grave, were it opened, would not present any vestiges of him. His children will not find in the honours paid to his memory a recommendation that may be advantageous to them, still less a compensation for his neglect of his personal interests and the fortunes of his family.

But, if he had built a playhouse, if he had planted a few trees in rows to make a drive, to which people would not have failed to give his name, then would he have immortalized himself; he would be thought more highly of for fifty paces of promenade than for fifty leagues of high road.

The moral which I draw from these reflections is, that little things serve for a ticket to great ones; that is, that if we create the latter to recommend ourselves to posterity, we must not

neglect the others, if we would gain the good opinion of the present generation.

My observations are deduced from my own experience.

In the course of a long administration I am conscious of having done some good. Who notices it? who talks of it?—Not a creature behind my back; a few polite people when they meet me.

I have embellished a quarter of Nimes; the people have given it my name; all vied in complimenting me upon it.

This administrative bagatelle, to which I attached no importance, which I considered as merely a diversion from labours of a higher order, has contributed more to my reputation than the results obtained by undertakings of real utility, more even than the part which I had in the success of the expedition against Algiers.

After this, ransack your brains for honourable ideas! expend your health in realizing them! Sacrifice yourself to the public interest, that

you may see the most insignificant of your labours preferred to your noblest conceptions, and frequently a coxcomb or an idiot to yourself, who are neither! Let an occasion for popular delirium arrive; offer your services in expiation of the crime of not having had force sufficient to make reason triumph, and you will see if they will abate one iota of the rigour of the sentence: you will be banished, imprisoned—too happy if they do you the favour to spare your life!

My conscience does not forget itself whilst engaged in soothing afflictions originating in the counsels which it gave me. It was this that induced me to pursue a track the difficulties and dangers of which reason failed not to point out. It was this that encouraged me to persevere on occcasions when I might, without dishonour, have withdrawn myself from a danger which I saw imminent—irremediable.

When I reflected that, for the loss of liberty, perhaps of life, no compensation would be made either to me, if I survived, or to my memory, if I should perish; that, in the event even of a

triumph, the glory of it would be contested, to say nothing of the risks which I should have run; that the prince whom I should have served, that the public interested in my success, would repay my services with ingratitude alone; that envy, which would not fail to interfere, would be sure to attack my very intentions: it was again my conscience that lifted me above these considerations, well-founded as it acknowledged them to be.

At this moment it tells me that there are principles from which a man of honour can never deviate without doing an injury to his reputation and a still greater injury to society; that the principles which are connected with the stability of governments belong to this number, and ought to be placed in the first line; that on the respect paid to these depends the welfare of nations; that, all these principles going back to royalty, which is the personification of nations, we owe to kings the tribute of a devotedness free from considerations which would tend to restrict its limits and its operation; that, in accepting the confidence of a

monarch, we are bound to the nation whose representative and organ he is as we are to himself; that to violate the fidelity we have sworn is a crime against society; that to hesitate about the execution of the orders which he issues is to compromise the safety of the state; that, in calculating the chances of finding the public interest in the will of a sovereign, or in the adverse will of factions, there are more probabilities in favour of the former, because it is more deliberate, more calm, because it is founded on antecedents and facts, and because it tends to preserve: whereas the popular will, fond of theories, hasty, and inconsiderate, tends to destroy; that consequently the public interest imposes upon us as a duty, fidelity to kings, and that in the term fidelity we ought to comprehend all the acts which can render it complete and efficacious; that in certain instances the application of these principles may fail of its effect, but that nevertheless it ought always to be tried.

Then, returning to what concerns me personally, it adds, that I did right to sacrifice the

situation which I held, and which I liked, not to a prospect of ambition (mad indeed must he have been who had suffered himself to be so surprised in 1829), but to considerations of duty to a king whom one durst no longer serve; to the sight of the danger which threatened him, and the disgrace which there would be in withdrawing one's self from it when summoned to take his part; that it was my duty to employ, for the defence of the post committed to me, all the resources which honour, reason, and the desperate state of affairs, should suggest; all the energy inherent in my character; that the means which I consulted appeared to me, as they still appear, the only serviceable, the only possible ones, and that they were prescribed in Article 14 of the fundamental law; that if they failed of their effect, it was because they were not so complete as I had required them to be; that, at the aspect of the inevitable chance of ruin which presented itself at the moment of the attempt, such as it had been prepared, it was my duty to conduct myself as I did, and not to separate my cause

from that of the monarch and the monarchy, which nothing then had power to save, and of my colleagues who generously associated themselves with their fate; that I had satisfied the claims of self-love by pointing out the errors committed, and the commands of honour by seriously taking my share of their consequences; that I ought to accept, as an indemnification for misfortune, the honour of having done my duty and set an example of fidelity, misjudged by the present generation, whose opinion is governed by the event; but which will some day perhaps be appreciated, and find imitators more favoured by circumstances than I have been.

I accept these consolations furnished me by a conscience to which alone I applied for directions relative to the line of conduct which I was to pursue: they take from my griefs their moral side, and thus lighten what I have left to bear.

I should be ungrateful were I not to mention one of the principal compensations of the misfortune which has befallen me.

Something is yet left me of my past greatness: that is, friends who owe me no grudge for having been prosperous and powerful, and who remember the share which I gave them in my good fortune. Not an inhabitant of the country which was under my administration, to what class and to what opinion soever he may belong, comes near the spot which affords me an asylum, without devoting to me his first visit. All of them speak to me of the good which I have done or tried to do; all show me affection or gratitude. And I, who in prosperity kept carefully on my guard against flattery, complaisantly suffer her to come and pay court to me in adversity.

As this tribute is wholly disinterested on the part of those by whom it is offered, I take it for truth. When one is proscribed, is one so very culpable to seek alleviation for one's woes in the idea, even though exaggerated, of the esteem or affection which one inspires?

But, how soothing are their words, how sweetly they fall upon my ear, how quickly they reach my heart, when, adding to all these

flatteries something still more touching, my friends talk of my return to my native land! How thankful I feel for the hope which they give, and the wishes which they express for its realization.

When rational consolations are at fault, I apply for one, which is not without efficacy, to the doctrine, or, if you please, the superstition, of compensations, to which I am strongly addicted. I believe in a sort of ponderation of good and ill. I never enjoy any good that comes to me without tempering my joy by the presentiment of something untoward. But, on the other hand, I never meet with any misfortune or vexation, but hope, under a vague and indefinite form, mitigates the impression. Now as, in spite of my calculations, the sum of ill exceeds that of good, I gain more than I lose by this method of mingling the future with the present.

Such are the sources in which I steep my soul, to brace it against the calamity which has oppressed me for the two long years that have just elapsed. This period, which I might call

that of *recollection*, is one of those which I have had most to myself, in which I have lived most, and best felt and employed my existence. Till then, my faculties had exercised themselves with energy upon special objects only; now they embrace at once both the past and the present, and as much as they can grasp of the future. I apply to a real calamity a philosophy of which I had been very careful, from a presentiment that it might be of service to me some time or other, but which I had had occasion to oppose only to the vexations of a fortunate position. I exercise it at this moment upon a real adversity. I prepare it for still more grievous situations, the idea of which, without my being able to account for it, will come and intrude itself between me and the hopes of a better lot, and remove them to an indefinite distance, like those dun colours which perspective lays on the first plans of a picture, for a background, and to give more vagueness to objects, the details of which the eye is unable to seize.

So much for the past. As for the future, I

have divided it into two:—one part is under the control of my reason, which takes care to restrict its limits in such a manner that it can thoroughly know and duly manage it; the other is abandoned to my imagination, which, though no consequence thence accrues, disposes of it at pleasure, and embellishes it as much as it can. Is it wrong? I think not. But it were better to have nothing to do with it than to treat it shabbily.

THE END.

LONDON:
PRINTED BY SAMUEL BENTLEY,
Dorset Street, Fleet Street.

00083926

Digitized with financial assistance from the
Government of Maharashtra
on 02 January, 2016